Senior High School

MONOGRAPH

TEACHING AND EVALUATING READING IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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A Monograph to Accompany Reading 10

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INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

This monograph has been prepared to provide teachers of Reading 10 with additional background that will assist them in implementing the course. The purpose of the document is to help teachers understand more fully the **structural focus** of the Reading 10 course on reader purpose; the **philosophical emphasis** of Reading 10 on reading as a process of making meaning from written forms of the language; and the **practical emphasis** of Reading 10 on the reading of meaningful material.

PART ONE of this monograph gives a general introduction to Reading 10.

PART TWO explains the Expanded Statement of Content and suggests methods of organizing the course into instructional units.

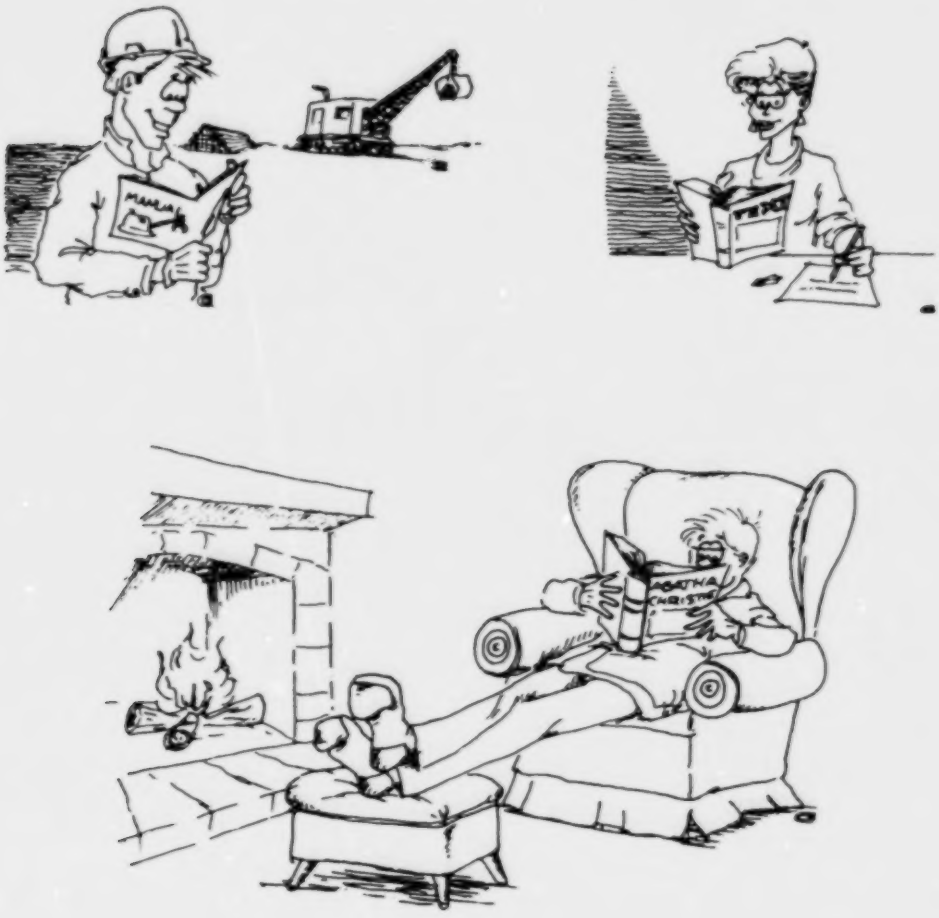
PART THREE discusses the reading research that forms the basis of Reading 10.

PART FOUR offers practical suggestions for teaching Reading 10.

PART FIVE discusses the evaluation of Reading 10, with suggestions and sample evaluative tools for all aspects of evaluation: diagnostic, ongoing, and summative.

The needs and concerns of the classroom teacher have been the primary focus in the preparation of the monograph. It is our hope that teachers of Reading 10 will find this document readable, practical, and helpful in implementing the course.

PART ONE
INTRODUCTION TO READING 10



Reading 10 reflects the significance of reader purpose.

INTRODUCTION TO READING 10

COURSE OVERVIEW

Reading 10 has been designed as a developmental reading course to meet the need of many high school students for a course that focuses on improving strategies for learning from text.

> THE GOAL OF READING 10 IS TO IMPROVE EACH STUDENT'S ABILITY TO GAIN MEANING FROM PRINT MATERIALS.

This is to be accomplished through a program built on recent reading research, which will help the student develop strategies to use in independent reading of a variety of print materials, for a range of purposes in present and future situations.

The Reading 10 course should give the student:

- opportunity to gain new skills and strategies by building on already developed reading abilities
- practise in applying reading strategies to a range of reading materials
- an increased awareness of special features of print text that aid the reader in making meaning
- a heightened awareness of the process by which meaning is gained through reading
- an enhanced self-concept as a reader and as a learner.

Reading 10 is directed to that group of high school students who wish to strengthen their reading skills in order to become more successful in school and out-of-school reading and learning. It is hoped that the course will be made available to high school students with a broad range of abilities. Reading 10 is designed in such a way that it can be taught:

- developmentally, for students of average to better-than-average reading ability
- correctively, for students with reading weaknesses.

Reading 10 is <u>not</u> designed as a remedial reading course for students who have clinical problems with reading. But for all other high school readers, the course offers opportunity to develop and strengthen reading skills and strategies.

The following assumptions and understandings about the course are implicit in the objectives of the course.

- Any student may benefit from the course, which is planned to take each student from a beginning level to a higher level of reading ability.
- A wide range of reading materials will be used, focusing on reading drawn from life, rather than on isolated exercises lacking meaningful context.

- The strategies learned will be deliberately applied to reading situations encountered in everyday life with special attention to school reading experiences.

- Language experiences are interrelated. Thus, speaking, listening, writing, and viewing will be involved in the teaching and learning activities of this course.

The most important understanding for the teacher is that reading cannot be separated from the life of the student who is attempting to improve existing reading ability. The course is built on the recognition that:

- poor self-concept is a major stumbling block to both initial and corrective or developmental reading efforts. For this reason, every effort must be made to help students have a positive and successful experience in reading

- the classroom atmosphere must be encouraging and supportive of each student as a person of worth

- reading must be consciously linked to the student's life as it is lived in the school context and in society beyond the school in order to help the student bring prior knowledge to bear on understanding text, and to transfer learned reading skills and strategies to new reading situations.

HOW READING 10 DIFFERS FROM PREVIOUS APPROACHES TO DEVELOPMENTAL READING

1. Research Based

   Recent research in reading has led us to understand reading as a complex thinking activity by which meaning is arrived at from text. Earlier reading programs often tended to view reading as the application of discrete sub-skills which could be learned in isolation from the total task of making meaning. This view is now discredited both in theory and in practice.

   Reading 10 will be most successfully implemented when both teacher and students view reading as an important life skill, worthy of thoughtful attention; as an integral part of school life and out-of-school life for all young people in our society; and as a complex thinking activity, involving the more or less conscious selection of related prior experience and reading strategies.

   A fuller discussion of the relevant research background to Reading 10 is offered in Part Three of this monograph.

2. Real Reading/Real Purpose/Real Help

Another way in which Reading 10 differs from some other approaches to improving reading competency is that it focuses on reading material that has genuine significance to the reader. This kind of reading is termed "real reading". **Real reading is reading in which the reader is involved in making meaning from text for purposes which have significance to the reader.** English educator Ken McRorie distinguishes "real writing" from drill, exercises and practice in written language. "Real writing" refers to genuine communication directed to actual audiences. Similarly, "real reading" refers to the reading purposes. Students will be reading whole passages rather than small excerpts or pieces of text written solely for the teaching and testing of reading. Students will be reading to accomplish purposes that are of importance to them.

In focusing on "real reading", the teacher avoids using isolated fragments of text of the kind so familiar to all who have spent time in remedial reading classes. Students will be invited to bring their own textbooks to class as they develop "Reading to Learn" strategies. Reading 10 teachers are encouraged to work with content area teachers to create situations in which the work in the Reading 10 class actually helps students with particular reading assignments (such as a social studies or mathematics assignment, or preparing for a content area examination).

One of the goals of the Reading 10 course is to heighten students' awareness of the kinds of reading they do and of the purposes for which they engage in reading. As students become more aware of their own reading experiences, the course becomes a way of meeting their recognized reading needs. In this way, course work is motivated by student purposes for reading and by student awareness of the need to read more effectively.

When reading is viewed as a way of making meaning for purposes important to the reader, the teacher becomes a coach, helping students successfully fulfil their own purposes for reading. The teacher helps students develop strategies for coping with reading tasks encountered in their lives. Rather than as a drillmaster teaching and forcing the practice of discrete sub-skills, the teacher serves as role model and coach for real reading.

3. Individualization of the Program

While some of the instructional time in Reading 10 will be spent in whole-class activities, much more of the course time will be spent in individual reading. Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading (U.S.S.R.) will allow students to engage in focused reading of self-selected material relevant to their particular purposes.

During such reading periods, the teacher may sometimes engage in one-to-one or small-group instruction, giving help to students experiencing particular problems, listening to student response to a recent reading experience, or introducing an individual or small group to a new challenge in reading. It is important that such sub-group teaching not interrupt the silent reading of the rest of the class, and teachers may well find themselves using the adjacent hallway as an extension of their teaching space.

Earlier programs in reading improvement have often included approaches to individualization which defeat the purpose of meaningful reading. Kits and workbooks may allow students to progress at their own pace, yet fail to make any real gains in effectively making meaning from print text. Focusing on discrete sub-skills separated from reader purpose has proven to be ineffective in improving reading.

The forming of sub-groups for instruction within the class should be done flexibly and according to a particular instructional purpose. Classes should not be divided into reading level groups which stratify the class and stigmatize the "lower groups". Examples of effective individualizing of instruction will be found in Part Four of this monograph.

PART TWO
ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION

There is little or no reading being done while the teacher is talking.

ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION

INTRODUCTION TO EXPANDED STATEMENT OF CONTENT

The Expanded Statement of Content of Reading 10 from the Reading 10 Curriculum Guide is reproduced in this section (pages 11 to 24) for the teacher's convenience. It will be helpful for the teacher to take some time to look through the Expanded Statement of Content charts, noting the overall organization of the course, before continuing to read the explanatory material below.

STRUCTURE OF READING 10

Reading 10 is designed to help students improve their reading in order to accomplish their purposes for reading. The course is built around three main reading functions: reading to learn, reading to function in society, and reading to satisfy personal interests.

The content of the course is organized **vertically** by reader purpose and **horizontally** by concepts and specific objectives, as shown in the Expanded Statement of Content.

1. Vertical Organization

   Vertically, the Expanded Statement of Content charts show the organization of Reading 10 according to the purposes for which one reads. The main columns are under the headings:

   (i) Reading to Learn
   (ii) Reading to Function in Society
   (iii) Reading to Satisfy Personal Interests

2. Horizontal Organization

   a) Concepts

   The course content is organized horizontally under five major concepts (A to E). Each of these concepts addresses a learning outcome which is fundamental to teaching and learning the Reading 10 course.

   CONCEPT A: The reader learns that reading can fulfil a variety of important purposes for the reader.

   CONCEPT B: The reader learns to recognize and use prior knowledge and experience of language and life in making meaning from print text.

   CONCEPT C: The reader learns to approach reading with an awareness that the purpose for which print material is written and produced is reflected in its structure, organization and format.

   CONCEPT D: The reader learns to select and develop reading strategies appropriate to the purpose for which print material is read.

   CONCEPT E: The reader becomes increasingly independent in locating, selecting, reading, and evaluating print materials in order to fulfil specific reading purposes.

b) Objectives

A number of objectives are stated under each concept, in parallel form across the three columns. These objectives represent specific skills, attitudes and understandings which students need in order to become more proficient readers. Illustrative learning activities are suggested for each objective. These activities are not mandatory, nor are they intended to be exhaustive. They offer a sense of direction or thrust for the teaching/learning activities of Reading 10 and will be supplemented by ideas from the learning resources, from this monograph, and from the teacher's own reading and teaching experience.

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE COMPONENTS OF READING 10 FOR three, four, OR five CREDITS

Reading 10 may be offered for three, four or five credits.

The chart below (Figure 1) shows which concepts (A–E) and objectives (1–4) are required and which are elective, depending upon the number of credits for which Reading 10 is offered.

	3-Credit	4-Credit	5-Credit
Required	A 1, 2, 3, 4 B 1, 2 C 1, 2, 3 D 1, 2	A 1, 2, 3, 4 B 1, 2 C 1, 2, 3, 4 D 1, 2, 3	A 1, 2, 3, 4 B 1, 2 C 1, 2, 3, 4 D 1, 2, 3 E 1, 2
Elective	C 4 D 3, 4	D 4 E 1	D 4 E 3

FIGURE 1
REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE COMPONENTS OF READING 10

The Expanded Statement of Content tables follow, pages 11-24.

I READING TO LEARN	II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY	III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS
CONCEPT: A. THE READER LEARNS THAT READING CAN FULFIL A VARIETY OF IMPORTANT PURPOSES FOR THE READER.		
Objectives **The Reader:**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**
1. learns that one of the purposes for reading is to gain information about a specific topic or subject, or to acquire broader general knowledge.	1. learns that one of the purposes for reading is to understand and respond to communications related to job, personal business or social activities.	1 learns that one of the purposes for reading is to enjoy the recreational and entertainment value of print material
2. becomes aware of the importance of reading for information for school success.	2. becomes aware of the importance of reading for success in business and social life	2. becomes aware of the importance of reading for satisfaction as a leisure activity
3. learns to transfer learned reading strategies to school and other reading tasks in which reading for information is important.	3. learns to apply reading skills and strategies in real reading situations encountered in business and social life	3. learns to develop the habit of reading for personal satisfaction
Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
• keeping personal log of reading choices • surveying adult or peer reading choices • studying popular magazines to determine kinds of information offered and percentage of space devoted to informational material	• keeping personal log of reading choices	• developing personal leisure reading record
• reading text and test material in several subject areas	• students go to a chosen workplace and note reading activities being undertaken	• surveying adult or peer reading choices
• content area reading tasks with pre- and post-reading instruction and discussion	• students bring sample forms, directives, instruction sheets from workplace • students bring examples of business and social communications	• practising sustained silent reading opportunity • recommending and sharing of "best bets" in books

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: A. THE READER LEARNS THAT READING CAN FULFIL A VARIETY OF IMPORTANT PURPOSES FOR THE READER.					
Objectives **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
4. increases the level of attention to and active involvement in reading in order to accomplish purpose.	• recognizing and eliminating distractions • using highlighter, marginal notation, etc.	4. learns to read attentively to accomplish purpose.	• dealing with fine print • reading carefully and re-reading as necessary	4 learns to become more actively involved in reading for personal satisfaction.	• discussing affective response to a book • identification with a character in a book • developing ongoing "conversation" with text/author using interactive notes

I READING TO LEARN	II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY	III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS

CONCEPT: B. THE READER LEARNS TO RECOGNIZE AND USE PRIOR KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE OF LANGUAGE AND LIFE IN MAKING MEANING FROM PRINT TEXT.

Objectives	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities
The Reader:		**The Reader:**		**The Reader:**	
1. learns that relevant prior experience in life helps in predicting and confirming meaning and links prior personal experience of a subject to what is being read for information.	• discussing personal knowledge of a subject • explaining terms a student has gained knowledge of through experience	1 learns that relevant prior experience in life helps in predicting and confirming meaning and links prior personal experience of a business or personal interaction to what is being read for business or social reasons	• discussing experiences related to a document or transaction • exploring terms familiar through experience	1 learns that relevant prior experience in life helps in predicting and confirming meaning and links prior personal experience in life and language to what is being read for personal satisfaction	• becoming aware of related knowledge/ experience • exploring likeness and difference in experience and text
2. learns that prior language experience including known words and language patterns can assist one in coming to meaning.	• increasing precision in the use of words • understanding word games	2 learns that prior language experience including known words and language patterns can assist one in coming to meaning	• applying knowledge of roots, prefixes and suffixes	2 learns that prior language experience including known words and language patterns can assist one in coming to meaning	• developing personal word lists

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: C. THE READER LEARNS TO APPROACH READING WITH AN AWARENESS THAT THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS WRITTEN AND PRODUCED IS REFLECTED IN ITS STRUCTURE, ORGANIZATION, AND FORMAT.					
Objectives **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
1. understands that a writer's purpose in informative text may be to explain, inform, teach or persuade.	• differentiating between opinion, authoritative statements and fact • recognizing tone, attitude, and point of view • recognizing unstated assumptions	1. understands that a writer's purpose in utilitarian text may be to explain, inform, teach or persuade.	• differentiating between informative and persuasive material • recognizing propaganda techniques	1. understands that a writer's purpose in text intended to be read for pleasure may be to entertain, describe, illustrate, satirize, inform, persuade, or illuminate	• recognizing point of view, narrative voice, tone and attitude
2. learns to recognize structural signals embedded in the language of text.	• understanding methods of idea development: – example/ illustration – statistical information – description/ evocation • recognizing features of syntax which highlight relationships of ideas: – cause and effect statements – chronological sequences	2. learns to understand structural signals embedded in the language of text.	• understanding logical linkages: – if/then, notwithstanding • understanding some basic legal terms: – use of suffix -ee, -or (e.g., lessee, lessor) – compound words (e.g., hereinafter, aforesaid)	2. learns to recognize structural and organizational signals embedded in the language of text	• recognizing narrative signals and techniques: – indications of time and time passage – flashbacks – stream-of-consciousness • using chapter headings and lengths as a clue to type of book • recognizing the appeal of some kinds of print

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: C. THE READER LEARNS TO APPROACH READING WITH AN AWARENESS THAT THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS WRITTEN AND PRODUCED IS REFLECTED IN ITS STRUCTURE, ORGANIZATION, AND FORMAT.					
Objectives **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
2. (cont'd)	• understanding logical linkages (if/then, therefore, however, notwithstanding, on the other hand)				
3. becomes aware that print material is organized and set forth according to the purpose for which it is intended.	• recognizing characteristics of layout and format of informational print materials: – tables of content – indices – chapter titles and sub-headings – chapter summaries – graphics	3. becomes aware that print material is organized and set forth according to the purpose for which it is intended.	• familiarizing the structure and layout of typical business and legal documents: – point structure – print density – use of boldface type – blanks to be filled in • becoming familiar with a range of standard business forms	3. becomes aware that print material is organized and set forth according to the purpose for which it is intended.	• learning to overlook lack of eye appeal sometimes in favour of other values • recognizing characteristics of layout and format designed to aid enjoyment

I READING TO LEARN	II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY	III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS

CONCEPT: C. THE READER LEARNS TO APPROACH READING WITH AN AWARENESS THAT THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS WRITTEN AND PRODUCED IS REFLECTED IN ITS STRUCTURE, ORGANIZATION, AND FORMAT.

Objectives The Reader:	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives The Reader:	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives The Reader:	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities
4. learns to recognize and cope with the specific characteristics and demands of print materials intended to convey information (e.g., school textbooks, non-fiction, self-help books, instruction manuals).	• applying appropriate strategies to content areas • understanding non-textbook materials: – organization of material (news, editorials, special interest sections) – structure of news story – relationships of illustration and text – bias, editorializing – structure of feature article: lead, developmental points, conclusion – visual signals: headings, graphics, illustrations – specialized vocabulary in technical and special interest field	4. learns to recognize and cope with the specific characteristics and demands of print materials encountered in personal and business life (e.g., business letters, formal invitations, annual reports, contracts/ agreements, legal documents, guarantees).	• understanding standard business vocabulary and terminology • reading the "fine print" in policies, agreements and contracts • understanding common abbreviations	4 learns to recognize and cope with the specific characteristics and demands of print materials read for personal satisfaction (e.g., fiction, drama, poetry, non-fiction).	• becoming aware of literary formats example: fiction – understanding dialogue conventions (typical and atypical) – understanding narrative conventions, including flashbacks, stream-of-consciousness, monologue example: non-fiction article – knowledge of structure, headings, graphics, and their relationships to text – recognition of bias, point of view, and authority – awareness of intended audience

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: C. THE READER LEARNS TO APPROACH READING WITH AN AWARENESS THAT THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS WRITTEN AND PRODUCED IS REFLECTED IN ITS STRUCTURE, ORGANIZATION, AND FORMAT.					
Objectives	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
The Reader:		**The Reader:**		**The Reader:**	
4. (cont'd)	• reading self-help books: – clear, concrete pattern of organization – operational steps – illustrations, examples and visuals to clarify understanding				

I READING TO LEARN	II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY	III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS

CONCEPT: D. THE READER LEARNS TO SELECT AND DEVELOP READING STRATEGIES APPROPRIATE TO THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS READ.

Objectives	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities
The Reader:		**The Reader:**		**The Reader:**	
1. learns that numerous reading strategies have already been developed and that this repertoire of strategies can be enlarged and refined.	• using diagnostic activities to learn reading strengths	1. learns that numerous reading strategies have already been developed and that this repertoire of strategies can be enlarged and refined	• reflecting (in journal or discussion) on the range of reading used in business and personal life	1. learns that numerous reading strategies have already been developed and that this repertoire of strategies can be enlarged and refined.	• reflecting (in journal or discussion) on kinds of reading student may do for pleasure
2. expands strategies for dealing with words:		2. expands strategies for dealing with words:		2. expands strategies for dealing with words:	
a) develops strategies for learning unfamiliar words	• applying knowledge of prefixes, suffixes and roots; where appropriate, derivation • using contextual clues for definitions within the text • locating definitions of unfamiliar terms	a) develops strategies for learning unfamiliar words	• building vocabulary through discussion, word games • using contextual clues and internal definitions to gain meaning • locating definitions of unfamiliar terms	a) develops strategies for learning/dealing with unfamiliar words	• learning "going on" strategies • using contextual clues to approximate meaning • looking up key words as necessary

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: D. THE READER LEARNS TO SELECT AND DEVELOP READING STRATEGIES APPROPRIATE TO THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS READ.					
Objectives	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
The Reader:		**The Reader:**		**The Reader:**	
2. (cont'd)					
b) learns vocabulary in specialized fields, as necessary.	• using internal definitions within text • refining concepts related to specialized use of terms	b) learns specialized terms of business forms.	• comprehending contracts, legal documents, forms • learning, where appropriate, about the historical development of legal terms	b) learns that words in themselves can be a source of pleasure.	• engaging in activities which enhance awareness of word construction, development, derivation • engaging in activities which enhance awareness of relationships between words, (e.g., synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, puns, malapropisms etc.)
3. expands strategies for dealing with visual and aural cues to meaning:		3. expands strategies for dealing with visual and aural cues to meaning:		3. expands strategies for dealing with visual and aural cues to meaning:	
a) becomes more proficient at reading and interpreting visual aids within print material	• reading maps, charts and diagrams	a) becomes more proficient at reading and interpreting visual aids within print materials	• understanding authority or work flow charts • understanding comparative information charts (e.g., Consumer's Guide) • understanding statistical charts	a) becomes more sensitive to the messages conveyed by illustration	• becoming aware of the illustrator's craft • comparing text and picture • ignoring inappropriate cover to internal illustrations

I READING TO LEARN	II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY	III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS

CONCEPT: D. THE READER LEARNS TO SELECT AND DEVELOP READING STRATEGIES APPROPRIATE TO THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS READ.

Objectives The Reader:	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives The Reader:	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities	Objectives The Reader:	Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities
3. (cont'd)					
b) develops visuals as an aid to deriving meaning from material	• creating and modifying mental images • creating graphic illustrations • note-taking, outlining, highlighting and summarizing	b) may occasionally find it helpful to develop visuals as an aid to deriving meaning from business or legal material	• highlighting • diagramming relationships • charting information for comparison	b) creates personal visualization from print material for pleasure	• describing a scene from a novel; mapping settings • creating pictorial equivalents to poetic language, events in narrative, characterization
c) develops an ability to reproduce oral equivalents to written language	• refining awareness of such elements as stress, accented syllables, phonic basis of pronunciation • learning to use diacritical marks in dictionary to aid in reproducing aural equivalents	c) continues to develop ability to pronounce unfamiliar words and names	• learning pronunciations and graphic presentation patterns (e.g., breaking down complex words into more manageable parts: "aforesaid")	c) develops an inner ear which responds to rhythm and sound of written language	• reading orally, prepared selected passages; readers' theatre, poetry readings to music background selected by the student • dictating a passage occasionally, giving student opportunity to repro-duce text from sound
d) refines the ability to hear author tone and attitude.	• differentiating between exposition and satire	d) refines the ability to detect tone and attitude.	• differentiating between sincere intention and mere interest	d) refines the ability to hear the voice of the author (including tone and attitude) and of characters within text	• listening to a reading of a passage which may include dialect or accent difficult for reader to recreate

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: D. THE READER LEARNS TO SELECT AND DEVELOP READING STRATEGIES APPROPRIATE TO THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS READ.					
Objectives	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
The Reader:		**The Reader:**		**The Reader:**	
3. (cont'd)	• demonstrating ability to differentiate between main structural points and illustration • showing ability to discriminate between reasoned argument and "card-stacking"		• detecting exclusions in contracts • detecting manipulative tone (intimidation, flattery) in business communications		• reading passage to detect satire, sarcasm, innuendo • learning to respond to subtle humour
4. expands strategies for adjusting speed and intensity of reading:		4. expands strategies for adjusting speed and intensity of reading:		4. expands strategies for adjusting speed and intensity of reading:	
a) learns how to increase reading speed and comprehension for the purpose of survey reading	• learning speeded comprehension techniques • using pre-reading activities, including identifying prior knowledge and asking appropriate questions about text • applying skimming techniques for the purpose of preview, overview, assessment of material, and reviewing learning speeded comprehension techniques	a) learns how to review a document by skimming for significant details	• applying reading techniques for the purpose of overview • recognizing main headings and sub-headings	a) learns how to increase reading speed and comprehension for the purpose of increasing pleasure in reading	• increasing speed of reading • using skimming techniques and "going on" strategies, where appropriate

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: D. THE READER LEARNS TO SELECT AND DEVELOP READING STRATEGIES APPROPRIATE TO THE PURPOSE FOR WHICH PRINT MATERIAL IS READ.					
Objectives **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
4. (cont'd) b) develops close reading strategies to gain detailed knowledge from print material	• developing note-taking skills (e g , précis, summary, paraphrase) • reviewing and rereading by means of a technique such as SQ3R	b) learns to read and reread carefully to gain a complete understanding of a piece of print material	• finding meanings for unknown terms • rereading and questioning for clarification	b) learns methods for close reading to increase pleasure in reading through appreciating style or interpreting a passage in depth (where appropriate to student ability and interest)	• using close reading and analytical skills, where appropriate

I READING TO LEARN	II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY	III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS
CONCEPT: E. THE READER BECOMES INCREASINGLY INDEPENDENT IN LOCATING, SELECTING, READING AND EVALUATING PRINT MATERIALS IN ORDER TO FULFIL SPECIFIC READING PURPOSES.		
Objectives **The Reader:** 1. learns to gain access to desired information from sources available.	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities** • recognizing the range of sources of information: – textbooks – magazines – newspapers – encyclopedias – dictionaries/ handbooks • using various types of indexes: – book index – library card catalogue – Reader's Guide and Index to Periodical Literature	**Objectives** **The Reader:** 1. learns to obtain desired information relevant to personal and business matters from sources available.	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities** • obtaining and using consumer reports and ratings, government publications, etc. • skimming and close reading • reading advertisements as source of information/ misinformation	**Objectives** **The Reader:** 1. learns to obtain reading materials related to personal interest and preferences from sources available.	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities** • sharing books with classmates through informal oral reviews • being aware of library and book store resources available • evaluating a book from jacket design and notes, advertising promotions, illustrations and sample passages • skimming for purpose of selection • finding more books by an author who has pleased a reader in the past • selecting on the basis of review

I READING TO LEARN		II READING TO FUNCTION IN SOCIETY		III READING TO SATISFY PERSONAL INTERESTS	
CONCEPT: E.	**THE READER BECOMES INCREASINGLY INDEPENDENT IN LOCATING, SELECTING, READING AND EVALUATING PRINT MATERIALS IN ORDER TO FULFIL SPECIFIC READING PURPOSES.**				
Objectives **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**	**Objectives** **The Reader:**	**Examples of Skills/ Strategies/Activities**
2. learns to evaluate material for applicability, bias, completeness and accuracy.	• scanning and skimming to locate and determine usefulness of information • checking date and publisher for relevant information • using bibliographies as leads	2. learns to evaluate material for accuracy, completeness, bias and applicability to particular problem-solving or decision-making purposes.	• comparing and evaluating information (e g , about a product or topic) from several sources • skimming and close reading	2. learns to evaluate material for pleasure reading in terms of satisfaction, challenge, sustained interest, expanded view of life	• sharing orally – "The best book I ever read was . ." • entering in a loose-leaf, collection of student recommendations/reviews
3. pursues desired information.	• reading in special interest fields, with encouragement to find new and more challenging sources of information	3. tackles reading tasks associated with business and social life.	• reading contracts • responding to formal invitation • reading and understanding pertinent legislation	3. widens the range of material read for personal satisfaction.	• learning that reading for pleasure includes novels, non-fiction and short stories for many people; drama and poetry for some • the student is introduced to progressively more challenging material

APPROACHES TO ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION

The vertical and horizontal structure of the Expanded Statement of Content shows the way in which the content of Reading 10 is organized. It also suggests a number of approaches to organizing for instruction.

1. Organizing Around Reader Purpose

   One method of organization would be to create major teaching/learning units for each of the three reader purposes. These units would link instruction to reader purpose, thus providing intrinsic motivation for students.

2. Organizing Around Concepts to be Gained

   A second method of organization would be to develop teaching/learning units for each of the major concepts. Each concept would be illustrated and taught by means of material actually encountered in school, work, or personal reading situations, related to each of the three major purposes for reading.

3. Organizing Around Objectives

   A third method of organizing for instruction, most likely used in conjunction with one of the methods described above, would be to develop some mini-units based on teaching a particular objective across the three reader purpose columns.

PLANNING FOR INSTRUCTION

The teacher who has a good grasp of the overall structure of the course is ready to plan by unit, sub-unit, and class period. One format that has been found helpful in such planning is reproduced on the next page (Figure 2). This plan sheet may be copied.

Sub-Unit Plans

READING OBJECTIVES

Concept C: Approaching reading with an awareness that the purpose for which print material is written and produced is reflected in its structure, organization and format.

Objectives 3 and 4, Reading to Function in Society

3. becomes aware of features of print text that reflect purpose
4. copes with various types of print materials encountered in personal business.

FOCUS
Reading Business forms encountered in personal life

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

- discuss how and why language of business forms differ from everyday speech.
- work in small groups to rewrite one form in "everyday" language. Discuss: What is gained? Lost? Why does the more formal patter prevail?
- Simulation: work in pairs to create adequate documentation for the sale/purchase of a vehicle. Obtain forms from licencing and ins. office and see if adequate information has been exchanged. Revise bill of sale and turn into a form that could be used in any similar transaction.

OTHER L.A. STRANDS

Writing
Speaking
Listening
Viewing

ALTERNATIVES

- Simulation: fill in police form reporting an accident.
- work through a variety of sample forms, learning such strategies as:
  - reading ahead to prevent filling in wrong spaces
  - learning specific terminology
  - reading and responding slowly and methodically

INTRODUCTION

Use prepared overhead transparencies of various kinds of business forms -

- job application
- bill of sale (see Reading for Life, pp. 151, ff.)

ASSUMED STUDENT BACKGROUND

Some experience with bills of sale

Applications for jobs, S.I.N., etc.

EVALUATION

1. participation in learning activities on three different days (3x5) = 15
2. accurately completed forms – mark samples of three forms (3x20) = 60
3. test: present class with a form they have not encountered, similar in type to those they have seen. Allow adequate time for completion, without discussion. Mark for completeness and accuracy. (1x25) = 25

100%

CULMINATING ACTIVITIES

- Move from more complex forms (e.g., insurance application) toward legal documents (next sub-unit), applying learned strategies of close reading, using knowledge of terminology, etc

FIGURE 2
TEACHER PLAN SHEET

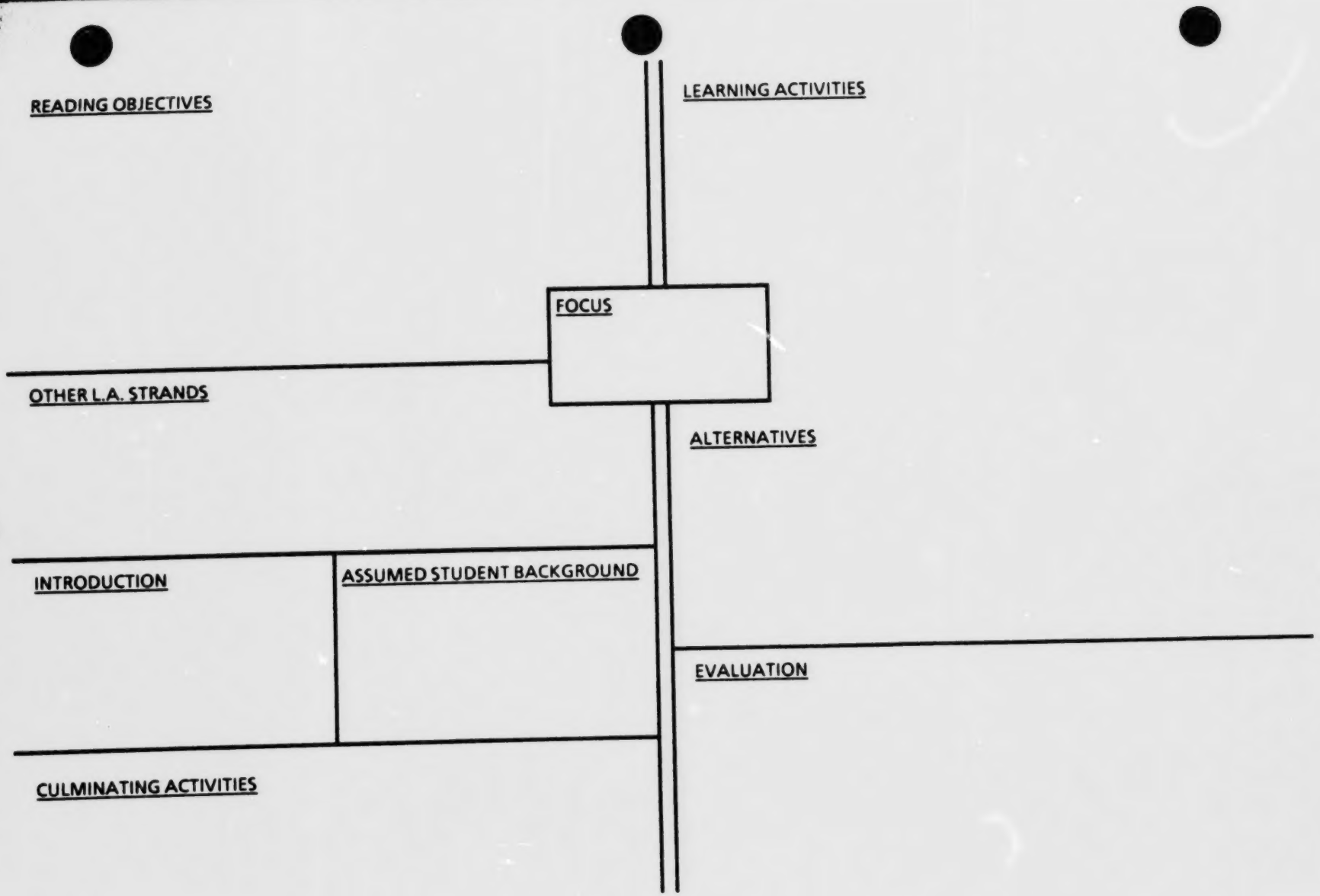


FIGURE 3
TEACHER PLAN SHEET (BLANK)

PART THREE

READING AND THE READER: WHAT THE TEACHER SHOULD KNOW

Three kinds of reader in the Reading 10 class

...the confident reader

...the indifferent reader

...the non-reader

READING AND THE READER:
WHAT THE TEACHER SHOULD KNOW

"Reading is the most remarkable, specific performance that civilization has learned in all its history."

--Edmund B. Huey

In the discussion of how students can be helped to achieve competency in reading, some crucial questions are often overlooked.

- What is reading?
- What do good readers do when they read?
- What do poor readers fail to do?

WHAT IS READING?

The definition of reading that the teacher holds will colour classroom practice. Here are a number of definitions offered by current reading theorists:

"What the brain does in 'reading' is to make sense of a particular piece of written language in the light of the prior knowledge and current intentions and expectations of the reader."

--Frank Smith, Understanding Reading. [1]

"Reading is a language process to which readers contribute information from their knowledge of language and their experience. When this information closely matches the language usage and experiences of the writer, a meaningful reconstruction of the intended message takes place."

-- Kenneth Carlson, Help for the Reading Teacher. [2]

"Reading is a psycholinguistic process by which the reader reconstructs, as best he can, a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display."

-- Kenneth Goodman, Psycholinguistics and Reading. [3]

The definition of reading on which the Reading 10 course is based is this:

> READING IS AN ACTIVITY IN WHICH THE READER MAKES MEANING THROUGH AN INTERACTION BETWEEN HIS OR HER MIND AND THE MIND OF A WRITER AS MANIFESTED IN PRINT MATERIAL.

This definition is illustrated in Figure 4 (page 33) "A Conceptual Model of Reading." This model is discussed in detail in the section that follows.

READING AS INTERACTION BETWEEN READER AND TEXT

1. The Reader

   The reader, illustrated by the first circle in Figure 4, comes to the reading task with certain abilities and knowledge.

   Reading 10 should:

   - enhance the student's self-awareness as a reader
   - broaden the student's range of reading strategies
   - amplify the student's knowledge of the ways in which language is used in the making of meaning
   - make the student more aware of the ways in which personal interest and purpose affect the reading process.

The reader's self-concept seems to serve as a lens or a filter in the process of reading. With a positive self-image the reader will be more capable of using prior knowledge of both life and language in approaching the reading task, and more capable of taking the risks necessary in coming to meaning from text.

2. The Text

   The text illustrated by the second circle in Figure 4, means any print manifestation of meaning. Print text has certain characteristics which the reader must take into account.

   Text can be considered both as "medium" and as "message".

   - As "medium", it has features of format and layout which are designed to aid the reader in reconstructing the intended meaning. These may include such features as titles, headings, boldface or italic print, and graphics.

   In conveying meaning through text, the communicator has also structural patterns of the language (of which the sentence and the paragraph are the most obvious examples) with which to work.

Vocabulary is another aspect of text. Text is, to a large extent, words on paper.

- In considering text as "message", we consider the fact that text does not just happen. It is produced by someone (writer, printer, publisher) for some purpose (to entertain, inform, persuade, illumine). Thus, in coming to meaning, the reader must consider the intent and attitude of the originator of the message. Cues to intent and attitude can be found within the print text, and readers can be alerted to such cues.

Some aspects of the text of which a reader can be made aware are physical. These include such things as the size and type of print, the kind of format, the layout. This physical aspect of text includes the graphic presentation of words through print. Skills related to the interpreting of graphic information include understanding cues presented by format and layout, recognition of words or word parts, and analysis of unfamiliar words.

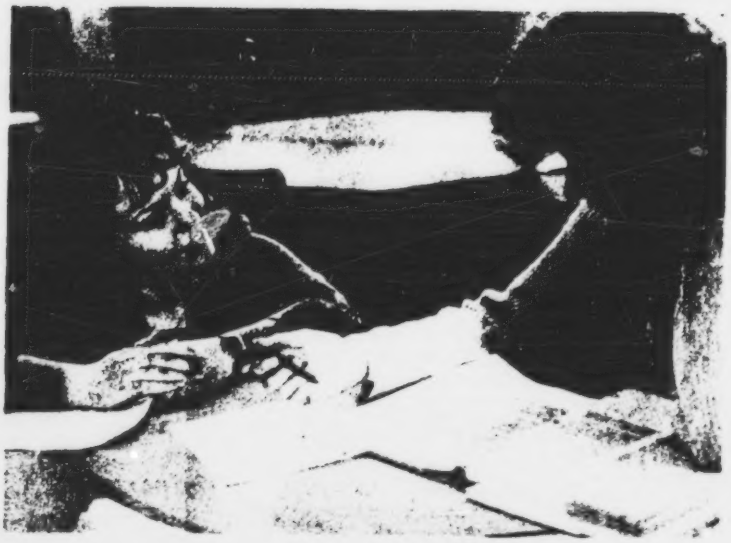
Beyond the physical arrangement of words on the page, the reader learns to respond to structural aspects of language -- that is, the forms in which relationships between ideas are expressed. To deal with this kind of information, readers must be able to make grammatical sense of the print passage by using their knowledge of the way in which language works. This is sometimes referred to as a response to syntactic cues.

A third aspect of text to which the reader must be able to respond could be termed relational. Some aspects of almost any print text can be linked to prior knowledge or experience of the subject, the format, and of the process of reading itself. Readers makes sense of a passage in terms of prior knowledge and experience of life and the world around them. Words are semantic cues to meaning to which the reader responds in the process of constructing meaning.

3. The Reading Process

The entire reading process is active and interactive. By responding appropriately to the various aspects of text, the successful reader understands both the message and its purpose. Clearly, such an interaction between reader and text cannot be a casual, passive process. It requires active engagement on the part of the reader.

- The reader must become aware of possible strategies and learn how to select and apply those which are appropriate to a particular reading situation.
- The reader must make simultaneous use of the graphic, syntactic, and semantic information within text in order to arrive at meaning.
- The reader must continuously process feedback in order to revise miscues and correct his or her interpretation of the text.



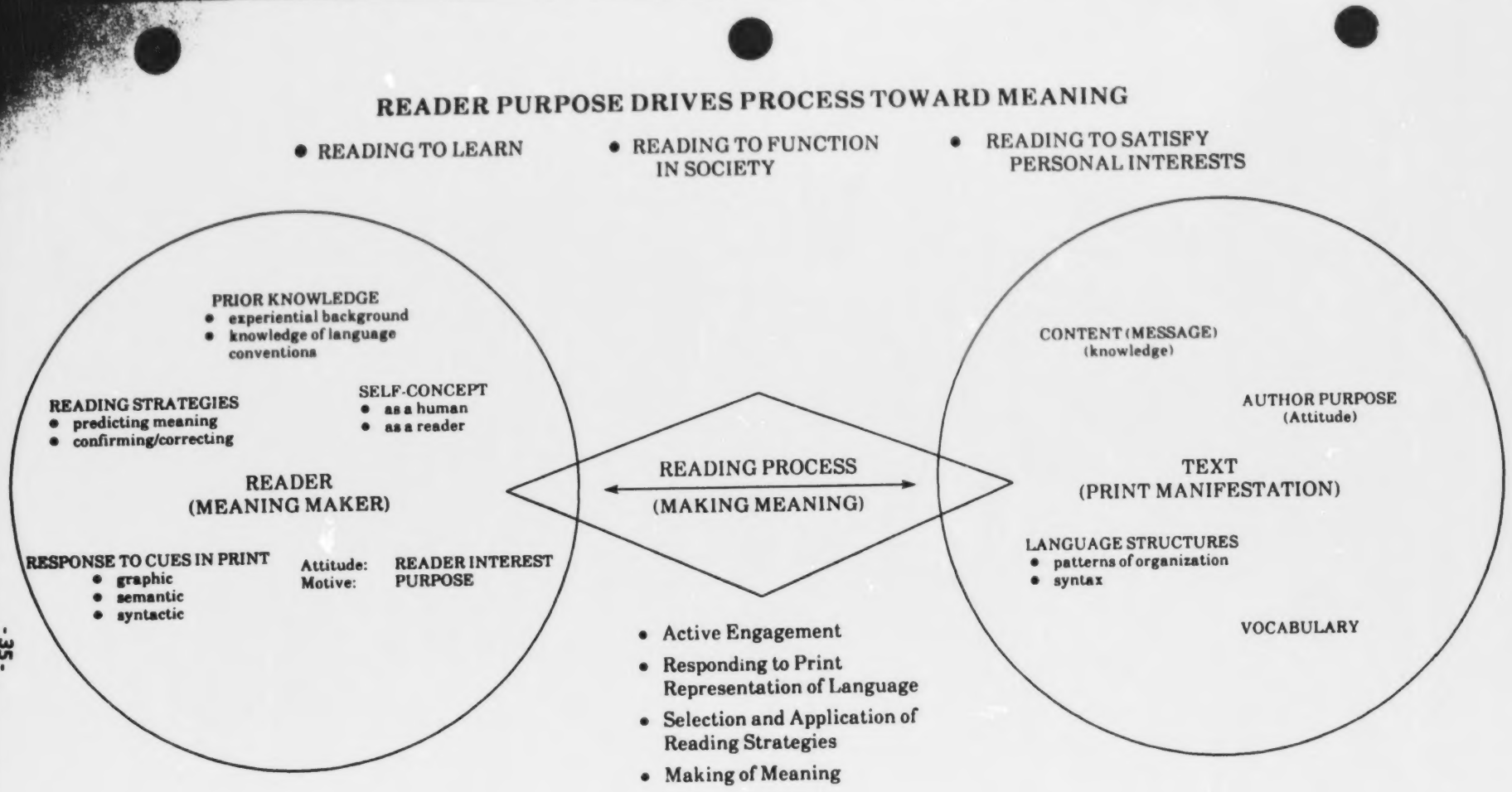
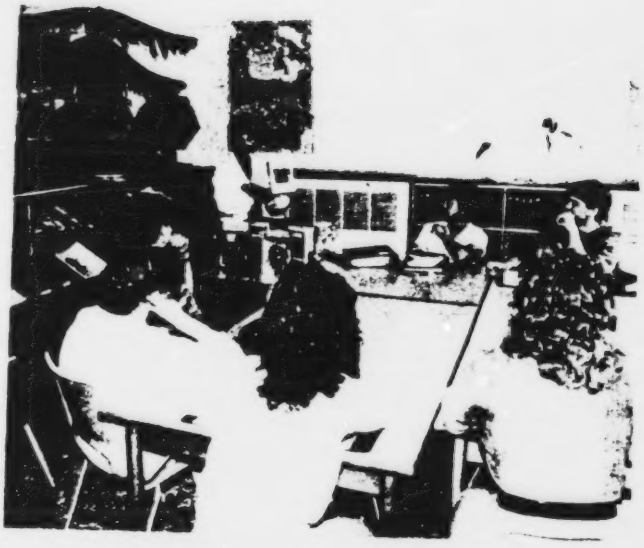
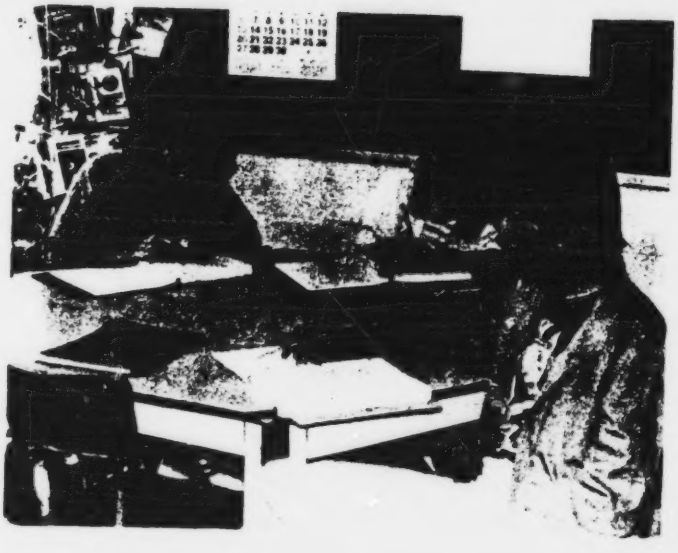


FIGURE 4

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF READING: READING AS INTERACTION BETWEEN READER AND TEXT





A CAVEAT

While it is important to examine the nature of reading processes, a familiar nursery rhyme may serve as a caution.

A centipede was happy quite,
Until a frog in fun
Said, "Pray, which leg comes after which?"
This raised her mind to such a pitch
She lay distracted in the ditch
Considering how to run.

The fact is that many people read very well without becoming particularly conscious of the process. However, most readers can become more effective through an increased understanding of the reading process and the development of a wider range of reading skills and strategies.

Since much of the research of recent years has focused on the actual reported or observed behaviour of readers (with proficient adult readers, early readers, and adult beginners the particular focus of interest), the next important way to look at reading is to ask ourselves, "What is a good reader?"

WHAT IS A GOOD READER?

In Figure 5 (see chart, pages 38 and 39), a series of statements describing characteristic reading behaviours of the good reader are related to the goals of the Reading 10 course. The relevant concepts and objectives from the Expanded Statement of Content are included to help the teacher relate teaching/learning activities to the development of specific traits of a good reader.

WHAT IS A GOOD READER?
IMPLICATIONS FOR READING 10

A GOOD READER . . .	THE READING 10 COURSE . . .	REFERENCE TO STATEMENT OF CONTENT
1. enjoys reading and reads often.	• provides opportunity for personal reading. • helps students define areas of interest and find reading materials to meet those interests.	Throughout Course
2. reads with an awareness of his or her purpose for reading, perceiving the print message to be of significance.	• helps students become increasingly aware of their purposes for reading. • focuses on reading which has perceived significance for the student.	CONCEPT A: Objectives 1-4
3. is aware that purposes of publisher and author affect the print message.	• focuses on the gaining of meaning from printed material, with the understanding that meaning has been placed in print by someone for a particular purpose.	CONCEPT C: Objectives 1-4
4. reads with a questioning attitude, constantly linking what is being read to what is already known.	• helps students interact with text by asking appropriate questions. • helps students assess and enlarge background knowledge of life and language and bring this background to the text.	CONCEPT B: Objectives 1-2
5. reads a wide variety of material, adjusting reading rate and strategies to type of material and purpose in reading.	• provides opportunity for students to explore many kinds of reading materials. • helps students develop a range of reading strategies from which to draw. • helps students increase or decrease reading speed as appropriate to material and purpose.	CONCEPT D: Objectives 1-4 CONCEPT E: Objectives 1-3

WHAT IS A GOOD READER? (cont'd)

A GOOD READER . . .	THE READING 10 COURSE . . .	REFERENCE TO STATEMENT OF CONTENT
6. may become interested in words and language patterns encountered in reading.	• provides students with strategies for dealing with unfamiliar words and language patterns. • provides opportunity for students to add to their stock of words and readily understood language patterns.	CONCEPT D: Objective 2 CONCEPT B: Objective 2
7. is often able to hear mentally what he or she reads silently.	• provides opportunity for students to become more skilled at detecting author tone and attitude. • provides opportunity for students to learn how to reproduce, mentally, speech patterns and words encountered in print.	CONCEPT D: Objective 3
8. visualizes appropriately.	• provides opportunity for students to increase ability to visualize what they read. • helps students link graphics with words in printed text.	CONCEPT D: Objective 3
9. often enjoys talking about what has been read.	• makes students aware of the social nature of all language experience. • provides opportunity for sharing ideas, evaluations, recommendations.	Throughout Course

FIGURE 5
WHAT IS A GOOD READER?
IMPLICATIONS FOR READING 10

SOME THOUGHTS ABOUT LEARNING

1. Learning and Student Self-Concept

Poor reading is not necessarily a product of low intelligence or of cultural deprivation. While these factors may play a part, they are not necessarily causative.

When reading has been perceived as a difficult task, or when students perceive themselves to be failures at reading, there are formidable hurdles to be cleared for both teacher and student. The teacher needs to be able to: encourage readers to believe that he or she is able to make meaning from text; help the reader to discover that meaning gained is significant enough to warrant the effort that must be made; and demonstrate and give practice in ways by which the reader can more surely arrive at meaning.

Positive self-concept is a central, critical factor in reading success. A large-scale British study showed that the single, most severely limiting factor in learning to read is poor self-concept. Many students will come into the course thinking of themselves as "poor readers", viewed by previous teachers as "skill-deficient" or "unmotivated". It is of the utmost importance that in Reading 10 they experience success in reading. By this, we mean that reading must come to fulfil a meaningful purpose for them. Only as it does will students continue to make the effort to read. Reading tasks in the course must be clearly connected to real life as it is lived by the student, within the school situation and beyond it.

2. Learning Styles

Differences in learning styles may account for some of the success or lack of it that students have experienced in reading up to this point. Reading teachers should be aware that a variety of teaching methods will be necessary to accommodate the range of learning styles in any classroom.

3. Developmental Differences

Developmental differences will affect how students learn. While most students in Reading 10 will probably fall within "middle adolescence", some may still be, developmentally, in "early adolescence", and a number who have been delayed in their passage through school or who take Reading 10 while in Grade 11 or 12 may well be in "late adolescence" in their physical, mental and social development. Awareness of the developmental stage of the student will help the teacher provide the necessary support for the complex and highly abstract mental activity that is involved in reading.

4. Success Leads to Success

Clearly, success in reading can lead to other kinds of success that are critical to the formation of a positive self-concept. This understanding is fundamental to the Reading 10 course. Each student should be helped to gain increasing competence. The tone of the entire course is: **"You can read--and you can learn how to read more effectively."**

FOOTNOTES

PART THREE

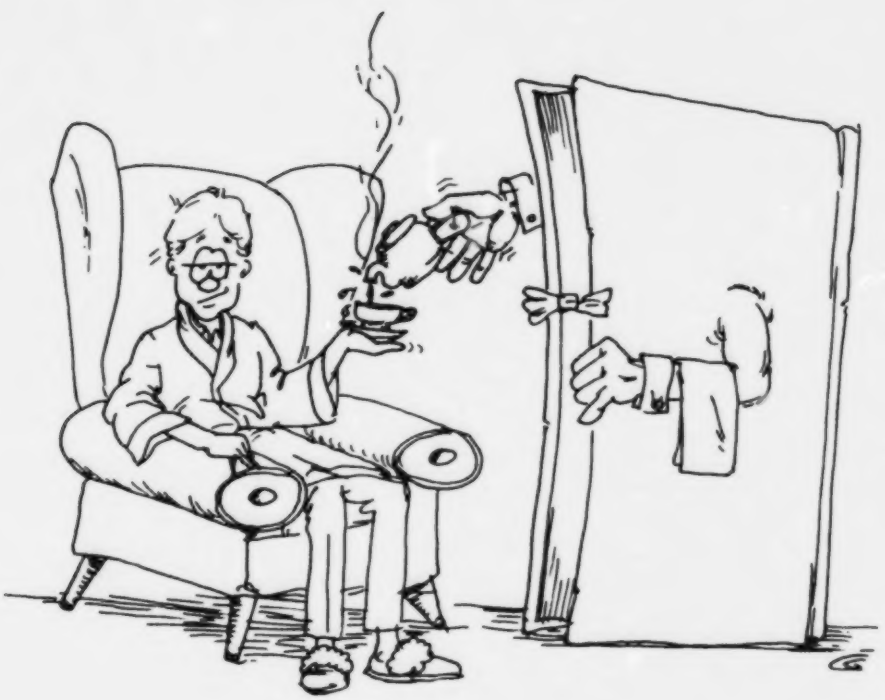
1. Frank Smith. Understanding Reading, 2nd ed., New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1982, pp. 9-12.

2. Kenneth Carlson. "A Different Look at Reading in the Content Areas," in William D. Page, Ed., Help for the Reading Teacher: New Directions in Research, Urbana: ERIC, 1975, p. 55.

3. Kenneth Goodman, "Psycholinguistic Universals in the Reading Process," in Frank Smith, Ed., Psycholinguistics and Reading, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973, p. 22.

PART FOUR

READING AND THE TEACHER: WHAT THE TEACHER CAN DO



Reading 10 helps students discover that print text can serve them.

READING AND THE TEACHER: WHAT THE TEACHER CAN DO

SOME GENERAL COMMENTS ON METHOD

Many of those teaching Reading 10 will not be specialists in the field of reading. Some may feel apprehension as they approach the teaching task. Such teachers will be encouraged to know that no special repertoire of teaching methods is demanded by the course. Reading 10 will be taught best when reading is seen as a process rather than as the learning of a set of sub-skills. The emphasis in the course is on bringing about meaningful conjunction of student and text.

There are, of course, certain strategies and skills which can and should be taught. Methods of reading for study purposes, ways of reading more quickly, the techniques of skimming and scanning --these can be taught, and students can be assisted in transferring these skills and strategies to their reading tasks in and out of school.

Teachers should not feel helpless to bring about improvement, nor think that they can do it all. Student involvement and effort are necessary for significant progress. Realizing this, teachers will provide motivation through engaging readers in purposeful interaction with significant reading material. They will provide instruction in specific skills and strategies for approaching and processing print. They will provide a learning environment in which students can develop good work habits.

The teacher will realize that whether or not students will show significant growth in their reading ability will depend upon a range of factors, such as those shown in Figure 6.

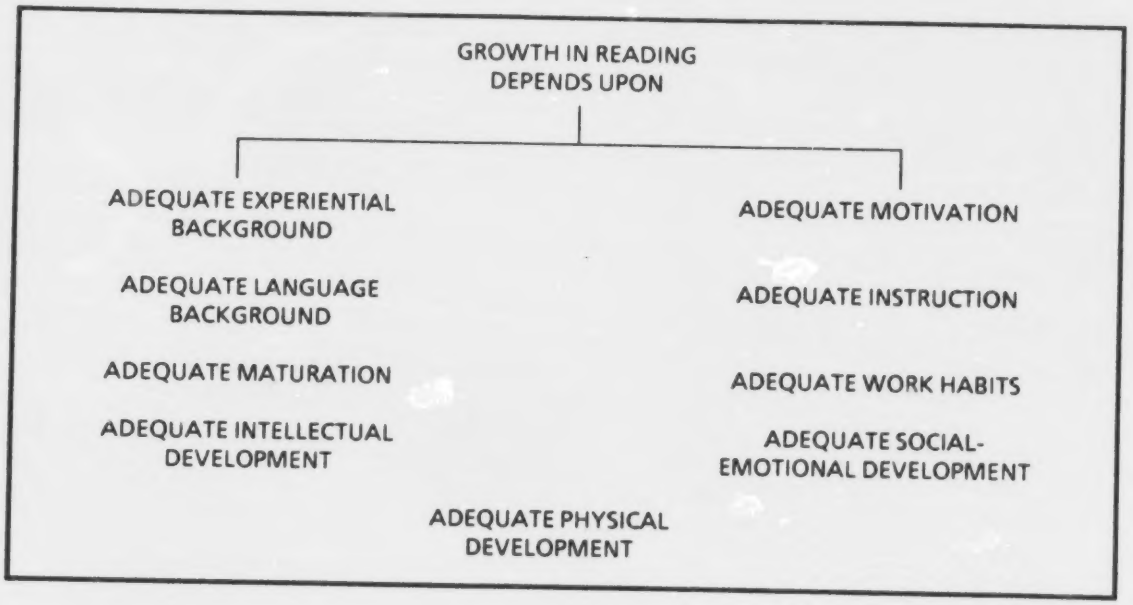


FIGURE 6
FACTORS AFFECTING GROWTH IN READING
FROM EMERALD V. DECHANT
DIAGNOSIS AND REMEDIATION OF READING DISABILITY[1]

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES AND CUE SYSTEMS

Current research has identified four interactive cue systems between text and reader. The reader comes to meaning by responding to these cue systems as text is read. These four types of cue systems are:

- cue systems within words. Some researchers call these **grapho-phonemic** cues
- cue systems within the flow of language. These are sometimes referred to as **syntactic** cues; that is, cues afforded by the structure of the language
- cue systems within the reader. These cues are created by the reader's **prior knowledge** of language and of life. Some of these may be **semantic** cues
- cue systems external to the print text and to the reader. These cues may be in the form of illustrations external to the text, prompting by a teacher, or discussion to help student focus on the meaning of text.

Drawing on material from Smith, Goodman and Meredith (1970) and from Singer (1983), an instructional strategy checklist keyed to these four cue systems has been developed. This information is given in Figure 7 on pages 48 and 49. It serves as an overall guide to appropriate teaching strategies.

CUE SYSTEMS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

CUE SYSTEM	ASPECTS/FEATURES	INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES
1. Cue systems within words	• letter-sound relationships (phonic generalizations) • shape or word configuration • known little words in new words • affixes • recurrent spelling patterns • whole known words	— help students to develop schemata for dealing with new words, particularly technical terms encountered in content area reading, with emphasis on: constituent parts, meaning, pronunciation — help students acquire a repertoire of common roots, suffixes and prefixes — help high school students approximate pronunciation of new words — help students develop conceptual background through appropriate experience
2. Cue systems in the flow of language	• common patterns of words by which utterance may be ordered • inflection and inflectional endings • function words (articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, negatives) • intonation (syllabic and sentence stress patterns; pitch; juncture--some cues offered by punctuation) • contextual meaning (supplied by nearby function words, inflectional endings, position of word in language pattern, intonation, lexical meaning of nearby words) • redundancy (cues which operate together to narrow progressively the choice of word which might fit a particular slot)	— emphasis on "reading as reasoning" to lead students beyond sentence-by-sentence analysis to integration of meaning across sentences in larger thought units — help readers recognize that passages fit into certain formulae: e.g., problem-solution; question-answer; main idea-illustration; thesis-supporting argument — instruct students in the rhetorical devices used in textbooks to help them create relationships between ideas — repeated reading as method of coming to meaning: first, identifying words; second, identifying meanings in context; third, finding relationships between ideas

CUE SYSTEM	ASPECTS/FEATURES	INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES
3. Cue systems within the reader (i.e., reader's prior knowledge of language and life)	• language facility in a particular dialect • physiology: visual acuity, hearing ability, mental health • learned response to graphic cues (letters, singly or in groups, evoke a response common to readers of the language) • experiential background of the reader (communication depends on some base of shared experience between sender and receiver) • conceptual background and ability (a reader cannot read written language that expresses concepts far beyond his or her ability to understand)	— students may need ongoing help in "translating" from and to standard dialect — secondary students bring with them a profile of reading abilities reflecting previous reading experience, aptitudes, interests, background in school subjects; need help in developing abilities in each content area — secondary students bring a store of "scripts" (predictable sequences of events) and use these in assimilating or recalling information; need help in developing further scripts (e.g., laboratory procedures, methods of sociological investigation, research in history and humanities)
4. Cue systems external to text and reader	• pictures (may supplement the visual images evoked in reader's mind; create interest; supply cues to meaning) • prompting by teacher or other • concrete objects labelled with names • skill charts posted to remind reader of strategies	— students need help in becoming progressively less dependent on cue systems external to text — pre- and post-reading questioning by teacher should be designed to lead to internalized posing of appropriate questions by students, with teacher questioning phased out — systems such as SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review) are designed to lead students toward independent accessing of meaning from text

FIGURE 7
CUE SYSTEMS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

DRAWN FROM SMITH, GOODMAN & MEREDITH, "THE READING PROCESS: A PSYCHOLINGUISTIC VIEW", AND SINGER, "A CENTURY OF LANDMARKS IN READING AND LEARNING FROM TEXT AT THE HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL"[2]

TEACHER AS ROLE MODEL: READER AND LEARNER

Recent research has shown that the reading teacher (or researcher or observer) is an interrupter and, thus, a distorter of the private interaction between reader and text. As soon as a third party is introduced the interaction is changed.

Thus, the teacher needs to assume a role in the reading process carefully, remembering that there is little or no reading going on while the teacher is talking. Reading 10 is not merely a course about reading; it is a course in reading.

One helpful role the teacher can assume is that of role model as fellow learner. If the Reading 10 class can become a fellowship of readers, a conspiracy for solving reading problems, a collaboration of students and teacher for the improvement of reading, the teacher will have done a great deal to break down the wall which seems to separate proficient readers from less capable ones.

As role model, the teacher does not assume an "expert stance" from which to direct learning activities. Actually, the "expert stance" has the danger of producing a "clinical" approach to solving reading problems and that, in turn, produces passivity on the part of the student who, ironically, must actively bring about his or her own reading improvement.[3]

As role model, the teacher can identify with the students as a reader and as a learner. As a fellow learner, the teacher can effectively communicate an attitude which is more important than any technique or method, saying by mode and by manner: "Reading is important to me. I am constantly using it to extend the limits of my world. And, like you, I am therefore often bumping up against my own limitations as a reader. Here's what I do to extend my range of reading strategies ... ."

Here are some suggestions for creating a sense of collaboration within the Reading 10 class:

1. Read When the Class Reads

   A considerable amount of time in the Reading 10 class should be set aside for uninterrupted reading, to counter the fragmenting effect of "short-burst reading" which characterizes many school reading situations. A term coined for such reading is "U.S.S.R." -- Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading.

   During these times of silent reading, the teacher can demonstrate that real reading is meaningful in life by reading when the class reads: reading a novel, poetry, or non-fiction--whatever the teacher might choose to read to satisfy personal purposes in reading.

2. Discuss Personal Reading Choices with Class

   Sometimes on a person-to-person basis, sometimes with the whole class, the teacher can discuss briefly what he or she has chosen to read, and why. To broaden the range of role models with whom students may identify as readers, the teacher could invite popular teachers or community persons to the classroom to talk about what they like to read. This kind of sharing activity could lead class members to talk about the books or magazines they have chosen to read, and to become increasingly articulate about their reasons for the choices they make.

3. Share Reading Problem with Class

From time to time, all readers encounter difficulties in reading. The reader/teacher/learner can model a positive approach to such reading difficulties by discussing a reading problem recently encountered and inviting the class to supply necessary background knowledge or to suggest strategies that could be used in solving the problem.

For example, the teacher could pass out copies of an article in a specialized magazine in an area in which he or she is not knowledgeable (e.g., computing magazines, specialized professional magazines, car magazines, audio magazines) and ask: "Who understands what this is all about? Can you explain it to me? Why was I unable to understand this material? What are the key terms? How could I have come to meaning? Have you encountered similar difficulties? With what sorts of material? How did you tackle the problem?"

TEACHING TO ENHANCE STUDENT SELF-CONCEPT

By accepting the role of fellow reader, the teacher has taken a positive step toward enhancing student self-concept. Here are some further suggestions for helping students develop a positive image of themselves as readers, learners, and persons of worth.

1. Help Students Recognize and Apply Prior Knowledge

No reader comes tabula rasa to a page of print text. Each brings prior experience of both life and language to every reading task. The teacher's task is to help students realize they have such knowledge, and to select from prior experience what is relevant to making meaning of a particular text. One approach is through pre-reading activities designed to help students recall and apply relevant previous experience and knowledge to text they are about to read.

2. Help Students Transfer Skills Used in Oral and Visual Language to Print Text

Every student's prior experience includes experience of the language. Many students who experience difficulty in making meaning from print are richly literate in oral and visual communication. Many have full and meaningful personal vocabularies related to their own cultural backgrounds. In oral communication, they often handle such things as implication, inference, irony and innuendo, with ease. Many have extensive repertoires of television and film viewing.

The reading teacher will attempt to help students transfer to print text some of the skills they use in oral and visual communication. Helping students understand that print material is often structured in ways similar to oral and visual communications may help bridge the gap between the language modes.

In coming to understand this structural relationship between various communication modes, students can be encouraged to develop and make use of "scripts". A script is any learned probable sequence of events that aids in predicting meaning. We learn and carry scripts appropriate to various story forms and life events and can apply these to the making of meaning. Some examples of standard scripts with which students may be familiar could be the typical private investigator or soap opera story on television. Who always wins? Who loses? How does knowing this in advance aid our understanding of the story?

Activities in Reading 10 should help students understand that print text is one aspect of the human process of communication. This will help them link print to their experience with, and knowledge of, language

3. Help Students Become Actively Involved in the Reading Process

It is important that the teacher help students become aware that they can affect the success of their reading by their own level of attention and interest. Techniques that can increase involvement include learning to ignore or eliminate distractions and learning to use pre-reading survey and questioning strategies to focus attention.

Time should be allowed for attentive, involved and active reading for extended periods of time. The teacher will, ideally, create an atmosphere in which reading is not only possible, but is the main activity of each reading class period.

4. Focus Attention on Reader Purpose

Since the Reading 10 course is organized around reader purpose, the teacher can continuously relate skills and activities to the student's own purposes in reading.

For many of the students, the most pressing purpose for improving reading ability will be to succeed in school subjects. By showing the student the relevance of reading skills to school success, the teacher can motivate the student to gain reading proficiency.

As students learn to ask themselves,

- Why am I reading this?
- What do I hope to gain by reading this material?
- What should I know when I am finished reading?

they become increasingly aware of their own reading purposes and better able to select appropriate reading strategies.

5. Encourage Response

The result of active, involved reading should be response to what is read. How satisfactory was the reading experience in accomplishing the reader's purpose? Sensitive, thoughtful, evaluative response can be encouraged. Post-reading activities should be developed with the goal of internalizing critical evaluation. Students should learn to reflect on both the content and the process by which it has been understood.

After reading, students should learn to ask themselves such questions as these:

- Did I learn what I hoped to learn in reading this? Why? Why not?
- Did I enjoy reading this? Why? Why not?
- Was this material suitable to my purposes for reading? Why? Why not?
- What could I do (have done) to increase my understanding (or enjoyment) of this material?
- Should I re-read this material, using another reading strategy? Why? Why not?

CREATING A CLIMATE FOR READING

Some aspects of a good reading climate are discussed below.

1. A Climate of Mutual Respect

   Putdowns of students, by the teacher or by other students, should be avoided. Students in Reading 10 may mask their own fear of failure by teasing other students. Teachers will need to develop strategies for developing and maintaining mutual respect within the classroom.

2. A Climate of Purposeful Reading-Centred Activity

   At the beginning of the term, the teacher should establish a purposeful tone through teacher-planned reading activities. As the term progresses and students come to realize their own purpose and goals in reading, they can increasingly be responsible for selecting reading materials and activities.

3. A Climate in Which the Most Important Activity is Reading

   Opportunities for engaged, intense reading for sustained periods of time should be a regular part of the Reading 10 course. All other class activities should lead up to or follow upon reading activities.

4. A Physical Climate for Reading

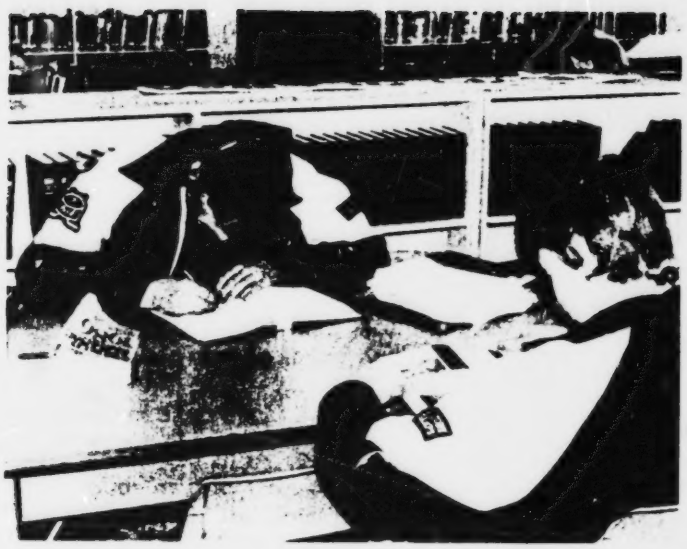
   The physical appearance and arrangement of the reading class can support the kind of learning climate recommended above. While not all Reading 10 teachers will be able to organize their classrooms around the activity of reading, some may be able to consider some or all of the following suggestions.

   - Establish a relaxed reading centre, including a chesterfield, chairs, coffee table and magazine rack. Good lighting is important. This area can be used by students who have completed the day's assignment, or by those who get there first. (Another approach would be to plan a rotation system for seating in this reading centre.)

   - Display paperback books in a carousel. This attractive and familiar drugstore format keeps a large number of paperback books effectively organized and displayed. Students may be willing to loan books they have already read by placing them on a carousel.

   - Display a range of current magazines ranging from fashion magazines such as *Seventeen* to special interest ones such as *Custom Cars*. Counter tops in the classroom can be used to display magazines as they should be shown, with covers visible. Again, students may be willing to bring magazines to share with classmates.

   - Highlight recommended books by means of bulletin board displays. Student recommendations could be tacked on to the bulletin board, along with attractive book jackets, posters about authors, and relevant newspaper items.



USING A WHOLE LANGUAGE APPROACH TO READING

Any teacher who protests, "But I can't teach just reading!" is perfectly correct in feeling that reading cannot be taught in isolation from other language arts. Margaret Hunsberger comments:

> A concept that reading researchers and teachers have always known but have sometimes forgotten is that reading is one aspect of language. It must be viewed as being within our total language experience, not as somehow distinct from language.[4]

The relationship between reading and the other language arts strands is important to the teaching of Reading 10.

1. Reading and Viewing

   Since the focus in this course is on making meaning from print text, viewing will have a minor place in the course. However, viewing activities might be used to introduce a book and motivate students to read; to view a visual form of a piece of writing after it has been read (e.g., a film version), inviting students to discuss ways in which the meaning they received from the print text differs from meaning received through the visual experience, and to lead students to discuss what differing demands are made upon them by print and visual formats. Viewing will also be taught as it relates to layout of text.

2. Reading and Talk

   "Talk" includes both speaking and listening. Talk is extremely important to reading. It should precede reading, and follow it.

   Lunzer and Gardner (1979) make this statement:

   > The effective use of reading always involves thinking as well as reading. At its best it is a conversation with the text. An emphasis on reading can and should co-exist with an equal emphasis on spoken exchange. When they are used together in the same setting, reading may provide the stimulus to thinking; spoken language gives it reality and sustains it; finally, writing crystallizes the product.[5]

   In talk before reading, the teacher can help the students to:

   - establish purpose for reading
   - identify usable prior knowledge and bring it to the reading task
   - ask appropriate questions of text
   - discover meanings and concepts for difficult terms.

In talk following reading, the teacher can help the students to:

- become aware of the processes of language and of thought, as they discuss not only the meaning they have come to from text, but the process by which they have come to meaning from text
- discuss problems they may have encountered in reading
- discuss perceptions of meaning and verify them by checking back with text
- talk about personal response to what has been read
- relate what has been read to other learning/reading experiences.

One strategy for follow-up discussion could be carried out as follows.

As students finish reading an assigned passage, they can move quietly to a "talk centre" (table or clustered desks) where questions to guide their post-reading discussion have been placed. When one talk centre has filled up (four or five students), readers will move to the second talk centre, and so on. As a courtesy to those who are still reading, movements and talk should be quiet and undistracting.

3. Reading and Writing

> "Reading and writing facilitate each other. That is, learning and practising writing help develop reading ability, and vice versa. Reading and writing need to be learned in concert."[6]

In Figure 8 (on pages 57 and 58), there is a summary of the similarities between the composing processes of reading and writing, as noted by Robert Tierney and P. David Pearson. A careful study of this chart will suggest ways in which the teacher of Reading 10 can conduct the concert of learning reading through writing and writing through reading. The entire article from which this comparison is drawn is made available to you in Appendix 1.

Students should be invited to write for the purpose of communicating with their teacher, their peers, or themselves. In this way, students will come to understand something of the purpose which lies behind all written language. The real importance of writing to reading is that it reinforces the primacy of meaning in the reading-writing exchange.

A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE COMPOSING PROCESSES OF WRITING AND READING

STAGE OF COMPOSITION	WRITER	READER
1. PLANNING		
a) goal setting	May set the following types of goals: • procedural ("How do I approach this?") • substantive ("I want to say something about how rockets work.") • intentional ("I want to convince people of the problem of . . . .") or any combination of these three goals. In the preparatory stage, goals are very fluid and may be broadened, fine tuned, redefined, deleted or replaced	• procedural ("I want to get a sense of this topic overall.") • substantive ("I need to find out about the relationship between England and France.") • intentional ("I wonder what this author is trying to say.")
b) knowledge mobilization	• decides what he or she wants to say with the knowledge resources at his or her disposal	• varies the goals he or she initiates and pursues depending on level of topic knowledge and what he or she wants to learn further
2. DRAFTING	• reaches for pen • holds pen poised • searches mind for lead statement or introduction • proceeds from lead to develop plot, exposition, description, etc.	• opens textbook, magazine or novel • scans page for a place to begin • looks over first few lines in search of a sense of what the general scenario is (begins to develop schema) • once scenario is established, reader proceeds through text, refining and building upon this sense of what is going on
3. ALIGNING a) stance b) role	• assumes a stance in collaboration with intended reader: intimate, challenging, neutral • immerses self in a role sustained throughout writing: observer, eyewitness, participant, character	• assumes a stance vis-à-vis author: sympathetic, critical, passive • immerses self in a role sustained while reading: identification with character, visualization of setting, suspension or engagement of critical faculties

A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE COMPOSING PROCESSES OF WRITING AND READING (cont'd)

STAGE OF COMPOSITION	WRITER	READER
4. REVISING	• reads • re-examines • deletes or adds • shapes • corrects	• re-reads with different alignment • annotates page with reactions • questions whether the original model is adequate • reflects on ideas • judges quality of initial interpretation
Throughout the Composing Process: MONITORING	• ongoing evaluation of what has been developed in light of writer purpose	• continuous re-checking of hypotheses and predictions • ongoing evaluation of adequacy of understanding in light of reader purpose

FIGURE 8
A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE COMPOSING PROCESSES
OF WRITING AND READING

DRAWN FROM ROBERT J. TIERNEY AND P. DAVID PEARSON,
"TOWARD A COMPOSING MODEL OF READING"[7]

USING PERSONAL READING LOGS

An important tool for the teaching of Reading 10 is the Personal Reading Log or Reading Journal. The reading log encourages students to keep a record of all material read as well as to reflect on the reading process.

1. Reasons for Using Reading Logs

   - By encouraging a habit of reflecting on reading, the teacher helps the student to become more conscious of the process of reading.
   - By giving the student an opportunity to express a response to what has been read, the teacher encourages increasing thoughtfulness during the reading process.
   - By giving the student an opportunity to record what has been read, the teacher helps the student set challenges in terms of variety, breadth, or even sheer quantity of reading.
   - By encouraging the student to become a creator of text through writing in a personal journal, the teacher can lead the student to understand the strategies of meaning making, and to see how meaning is built into text by its originator.
   - By using the reading log as a tool for evaluating student progress, the teacher can be sure that marks reflect the full extent of student reading and the quality of response to what is read.

2. Types of Entries in Reading Logs

   - Chronological log of all materials read, kept at the back of the student's journal.

DATE	TITLE: DESCRIPTION	TYPE OF TEXT	NUMBER OF PAGES READ
25/9/86	Page out of Biology 10	Informative	1
01/10/86	A Day No Pigs Would Die	Novel	29
03/10/86	Newspaper article re: Mass Murder	Informative	1

FIGURE 9
SAMPLE LOG ENTRIES

3. Reflections on Reading

With help, students can learn to write reflectively about their reading experiences. After a period of sustained silent reading, the teacher can demonstrate by writing on the blackboard reflections on his or her own reading.

A student's entry might be something like this:

> Today I was supposed to read four pages from my biology text, but I flipped the pages and they looked boring. So I doodled on this corner of my log book page for a few minutes, trying to decide why this kind of stuff looks boring. I guess it's because it doesn't make sense when you read it the first time. A lot of words are long. I decided that having a dictionary close by would help, but then I remembered the glossary at the back of the book.
>
> So I started by skimming a section under a heading. I circled all the words that looked unfamiliar. Then I looked up those words before really reading the section. I think that helped. I did get a couple of pages read, anyway.

The value of such reflections is that they heighten students' conscious awareness of their tasks and selected strategies. Such reflections could form the base of useful class discussions as students share various strategies for dealing with their reading material. For the teacher, such reflections provide useful insights into student reading and may suggest direction for instruction, either for the individual or for the class.

A variation on this assignment would be to ask students to divide the log page into three columns. In the first column, they record initial reactions to the reading assignment and strategies chosen. In the second column, they should note post-reading feelings about how satisfactorily they had arrived at meaning. After class discussion, they could be asked to write, in the third column, further notes and ideas gained from classmates for approaching such material, possibly under the heading, "Next time, I could ... ."

Before beginning the reading tasks set for the next sustained silent reading period, the students would review notes made to themselves and attempt to implement some of their new ideas and strategies.

4. Summaries of Material Read

This is an important activity because it trains students to gain and rephrase meaning from text. After a reading period, students could be asked to summarize the article, chapter, or passage read. They should initially summarize in short paragraphs of no more than three sentences. Later, as they become more skilled in summary, they should be asked to write clear one-sentence summaries.

Other forms of summarizing, such as outlining and précis writing, could be taught. Outlining serves the useful purpose of drawing attention to the structure and organization of the material that has been read. Précis writing requires considerable sophistication in separating main from supporting ideas.

5. Evaluative Comments

Evaluation of the material read constitutes another kind of post-reading entry sometimes made in students' logs. The teacher could guide the student with questions such as those offered under "Encourage Response" on page 53.

Evaluative writing will help students become more purposeful in reading, more precise in identifying purposes for reading, and more capable of evaluating what they read in the light of the purposes for reading.

6. Creative Writing

Sometimes students will be stimulated by what they have read to attempt their own creative communication. Thus, poems or brief descriptive paragraphs may also become part of the students' logs.

TEACHING SPECIFIC SKILLS AND STRATEGIES

Throughout the Reading 10 course, there will be occasions when the teacher must focus on particular reading skills, either for an individual or for the entire group. The following diagram reflects the way in which the teaching of particular skills fits into an overall framework of integrated whole language teaching of reading.

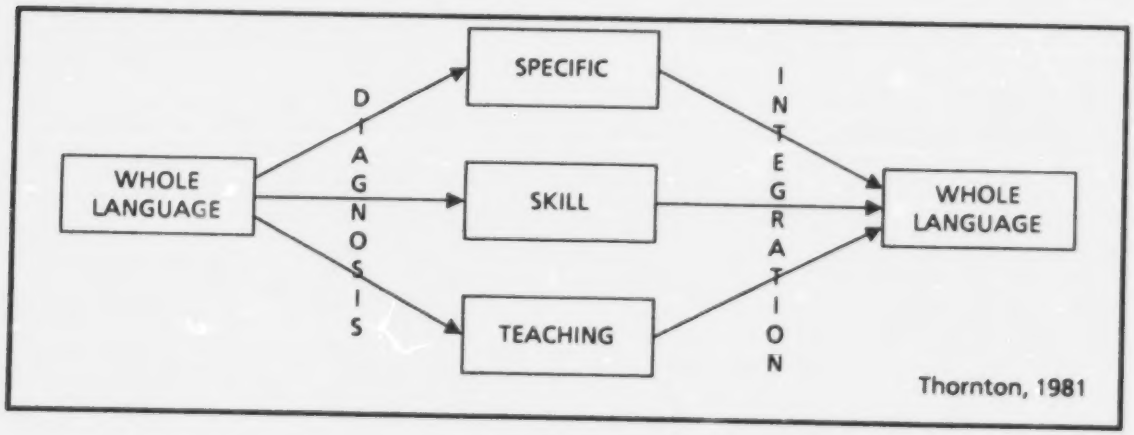


FIGURE 10
RELATIONSHIP OF INTEGRATION TO SPECIFIC SKILL TEACHING

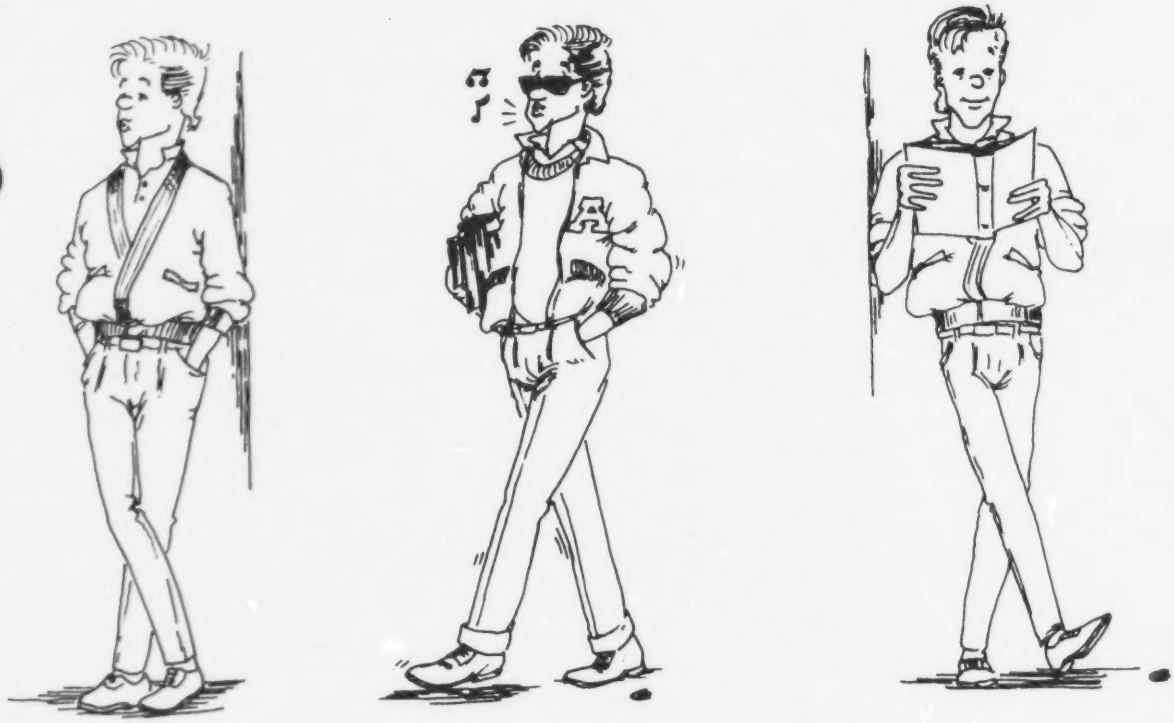
Specific skills (such as those suggested in the Expanded Statement of Content) will be taught as means by which students can better fulfil their own purposes for reading. The learning of specific skills should not become an end in itself. Skills learned should be applied immediately to meaningful reading.

TEACHING READING FOR SCHOOL SUCCESS

Robert Tierney, in "Learning to Learn from Text" (1981), says

> We are impressed that students do not develop an ability to transfer or apply knowledge, skills or strategies spontaneously ... . They need to be guided toward transfer ... . Situations and activities need to be implemented wherein students can try, discuss, and evaluate their strategy, skill, and knowledge utilization across a variety of reading situations ... . Teachers need to move beyond merely mentioning reading comprehension skills and begin helping students learn how to learn.[8] (Emphasis added.)

Research has clearly demonstrated that students can be helped by direct instruction in learning how to learn from text. The assurance that what is learned in Reading 10 has direct applicability to school reading, with the potential for increased success, is a powerful motivator for this course.



Students need help in putting text to work for school success.

1. Help Students Become Textwise

Increasingly, we are learning that students do not "just naturally" learn how to process the kind of technical text they encounter in high school content areas. The evidence is that the early reading skills learned to process narrative are not adequate for processing the technical texts which students encounter in their content area reading in high school.

Reading 10 offers an opportunity for students to gain the skills necessary to process school texts effectively. Figure 11 (below) provides a comprehension model based on current understanding of reading. The various kinds of information needed in order for the student to process text meaningfully are shown around the central interface between prior knowledge and inferencing skills. Comprehension involves connecting new information to what is already known. The conception depicted in this model is interactive with each category of information selected for use, as necessary.

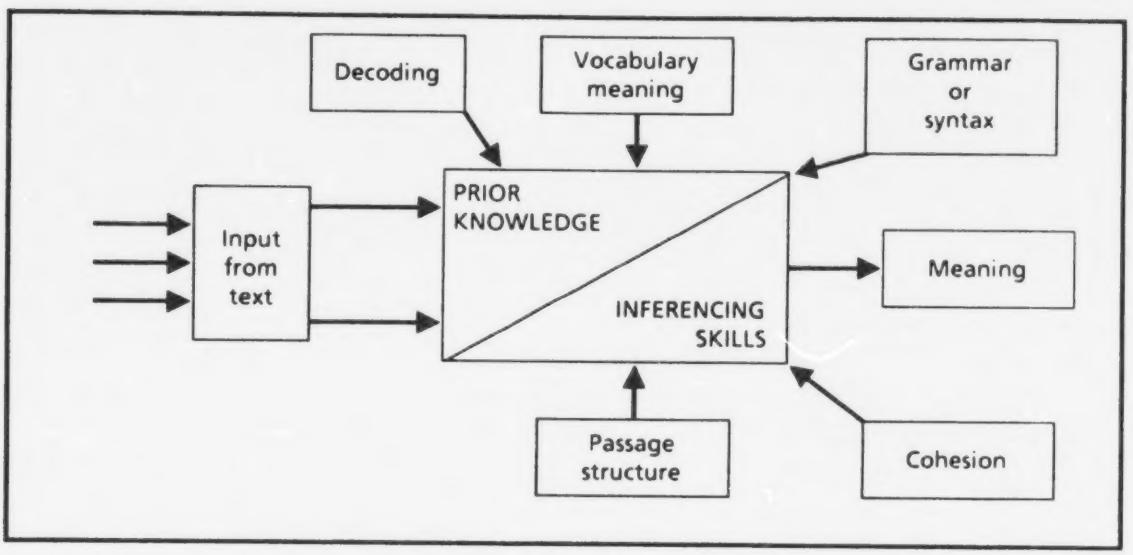


FIGURE 11
A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF HOW COMPREHENSION
IS ACHIEVED
FROM CATHY ROLLER WILSON (1983)[9]

Reprinted with permission of the author and the International Reading Association.

In order to help students approach the reading of school texts more effectively, Tierney and Pearson suggest that teachers might:

- alert students to the need to read the material carefully
- provide inserted questions or activities that encourage students to monitor their developing interpretation
- provide students with strategies such as outlining and note taking for carefully reading the text
- encourage students to consider their purposes, their level of understanding, and ways to monitor that understanding
- have students read the material in conjunction with carrying out some relevant activity.

In helping students assess and bring to reading their prior background in processing text, Tierney suggests that teachers should:

- encourage readers to relate their background of experience to what they read
- alert students to the importance of their own ideas, perspectives, and purpose in any communication
- ask students to discuss their knowledge, including a perspective about a topic, as well as discussing the author's perspective and what the author assumed the reader knew and might learn.[10]

The full text of the Tierney and Pearson article "Learning to Learn from Text" is reproduced in Appendix I, pages 121 - 136.

Much of the teaching of reading in specific content areas should be done with the actual textbooks the students are required to read. Reading instruction can be applied to real reading assignments the students have received in the content area class.

In helping students to become textwise, teachers will help them:

- become aware of headings and other features designed to aid comprehension
- develop means for dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary before and during reading
- read questioningly
- adjust reading speed to density of language structures
- skim for main ideas, then read and re-read as necessary to form concepts
- summarize, diagram, take notes, make marginal notations to aid comprehension and recall.

Many of the skills and approaches needed for good textbook reading can be taught through the SQ3R or PQ4R methods shown in the following two figures.

SQ3R

SQ3R is a planned system of teaching pupils aged ten to sixteen to study. It offers techniques for getting what one wants out of a book. As well as reading, pupils learn to gather information with a definite purpose in mind and then if the need arises, apply that knowledge.

1. Surveying the text: Read only those bits which are of importance and 'tune-in' to what the author is saying.
2. Questioning the text: As you read, ask questions about the way the author is writing. What's his evidence? Are these opinions?
3. Reading: As you read, think about what you are doing and maybe try to alter your reading strategy.
4. Reviewing: After one week, discover how much you have remembered. Develop skimming and scanning skills to review material previously studied.
5. Reciting: Test yourself. This overlaps with reviewing, for if you do not comprehend you must go back to the text.

FIGURE 12
SQ3R AS A TEXTBOOK READING APPROACH
TORBE, M. (1981): LANGUAGE, TEACHING AND LEARNING 4, CARRE, C.: SCIENCE [11]

With permission of the publisher.

PQ4R

1. Preview: Learners activate their prior knowledge by applying the preview step to reading assignments in the content area:

   a. examine title

   b. read introductory statement thoroughly

   c. glance over subtitles, charts, tables, captions

   d. read summary statement carefully

2. PQ4R: Knowledge activated during the preview step is confirmed, bridged with new knowledge, reconstructed, etc.

   a. question

   b. read

   c. reflect

   d. recite

   e. review

3. Students use PQ4R to develop flexible schema shifting in response to sub-themes in textbook chapters.

FIGURE 13
PQ4R AS A TEXTBOOK READING METHOD
FROM SANACORE (1983)[12]

Reprinted with permission of Dr. Joseph Sanacore.

2. Help Students Become Testwise

The language of examinations presents special problems to many readers. Specific test-writing strategies, such as those shown in the article reproduced in Figure 14, can be taught to students. In Reading 10, students should have training in reading and interpreting the kinds of test questions they will face in the content areas. Helping students prepare for a specific test, and then discussing their reading and interpreting of questions after the test has been given, will give immediacy to teaching of testwiseness.

Steve Hoffman suggests that student journals are useful in helping students reflect on a particular test-writing situation (such as a test written in the period before Reading 10). He suggests that students record what they did in preparation for the test; how they felt and responded during the test itself; how they feel about the results achieved. Students should then be helped to reflect on the entire experience of the test, asking themselves such questions as these:

- How could I have prepared better?
- What strategic errors did I make in approaching the test paper itself?
- How could I have been more pleased with the results?[13]

TESTWISENESS: AN IMPORTANT INGREDIENT IN ASSESSING STUDENT PERFORMANCE

by Dr. Kim Onn Yap

Testwiseness is a term that's been coined to describe how good a student is at taking tests. This capacity is independent of the student's knowledge of the subject matter being tested.

Examples of lack of testwiseness abound. Many students do not read directions carefully or misread directions. Few students realize that guessing is almost always to their advantage, even when there is a penalty for guessing. Some may think that with a multiple-choice question it isn't necessary to read all the possible choices before answering.

Research shows that, in general, testwiseness produces a small but consistent difference in favour of students who are testwise. Given comparable knowledge and skills in the subject area, testwise students tend to score a little higher than those who are not testwise.

Research demonstrates that testwiseness consistently improves test performance.

It is neither possible nor desirable to take testwiseness away from students who already have it. On the other hand, it is both possible and desirable to teach testwiseness to those who lack it (Mehrens and Lehmann, p. 336).[1] The goal of teaching testwiseness is to help eliminate extraneous factors which might get in the way of students demonstrating what they know. It is not to make students look better than they really are.

There are several things a teacher can do to prepare students for testing. Let's consider these strategies individually.

Preparing Students

In preparing students for tests, several major points are noteworthy:

1. Prior to any testing, teachers should make sure that their students understand key words and phrases often used in directions and questions. As pointed out in a recent testwiseness project (Michigan State Board of Education), some students may not know the meaning of,

according to the author	(the) main idea (is)
according to the passage	mainly
always	maximum
best	minimum
chiefly	most
(one may) conclude that	nearly
highest	never
implied	only
inferred	or
least	sometimes
lowest	

Also many students may not be aware that "always", "never", and "only" are words which often make a statement or a distractor false.

2. A significant portion of performances on standardized achievement tests hinges on a strong vocabulary. For the average youngster, most vocabulary is learned in everyday contexts (novels, newspapers, magazines, television and radio, conversation). But for students whose environments have been characterized by deprivation of one kind or another, direct instruction on vocabulary is essential.

   Since linguists estimate that 60 percent of English words in relatively common use today are of Latin and Greek origin (Millman and Puak, 1969)[2]; one strategy for building vocabulary is to teach commonly used prefixes and root words, e.g.:

Prefixes:	a	(atypical)
	ab	(abnormal)
	hyper	(hyperactive)
Roots:	homo	(homogeneous)
	graph	(monograph)
	tain	(maintain)

3. Prior to exams, teachers can also offer common-sense advice:

   - Get a good night's rest
   - Stay away from stimulants and tranquilizers
   - Don't drink a lot of fluids
   - Don't eat a big meal
   - Get to school early

During the test, students will find these practices helpful:

- Concentrate
- Don't talk
- Find a comfortable spot
- Listen carefully
- Ask questions if you don't understand what a question means
- Stay calm if you don't know the answers
- Make an educated guess
- Time yourself by making a mental note of what the time will be when you'll have five-ten minutes left so you can review your work
- Starting with the first question or problem read the passage or problem all the way through and then carefully read all the answer choices for each test question
- Don't puzzle more than a few seconds over any question or problem
- On your second pass through the test, try the questions you couldn't answer easily the first time. Read each of these questions or problems again and all the answer choices, then see if you can eliminate some of them.

4. Students must be properly motivated to take tests. They should be aware of the importance of testing; purpose of testing; specific areas to be tested; the length of the test; date, time and location of testing; materials to bring; and arrangements for make-up tests.

Instead of saying "I'll never finish the test," the students should tell themselves, "Just take one step at a time."

In some cases, a pep talk by the principal, counselor or teacher may be helpful. Reinforcement in the form of preferred activity time or bonus/point system might also help.

A few additional specific strategies:

Positive self-talk. Instead of saying "I'll never finish the test," students should tell themselves, "Just take one step at a time."

Reading the questions before the passage. This strategy allows students to save time by looking for answers as they read a passage. Be aware, however, that this strategy requires a proficiency that many low-achieving students do not have.

Guessing. From a measurement standpoint, guessing is advantageous to the test-taker in most, if not all, cases. When there is no penalty for guessing, which is the case with most standardized tests, students can only gain by making informed guesses. And even when there is a penalty, informed guessing may still be advantageous.

Guessing should be discouraged, however, when test results are used solely for diagnostic purposes.

Anxiety Control. A low or medium level of anxiety may actually enhance test performance. Of most concern to teachers and measurement experts is debilitating anxiety which renders students unable to provide an accurate measure of their achievement. When this occurs, teachers should have the option of using alternative assessment methods (e.g., use of work samples and teacher observations) which are less likely to evoke anxiety.

Providing Congruent Practice for Students

For some students in our culture, test-taking is almost a way of life. For these students, sheer test-taking experience can have a positive impact on performance. It is essential, therefore, that all students be given congruent practice in test-taking . . .

Summary

Research demonstrates that testwiseness consistently improves test performance. For student assessment to be accurate--and fair--all students therefore need to be testwise. Teachers can help by knowing how to prepare students for testing, creating good test items, and providing congruent practice for students. Testwise students not only provide a more valid measure of achievement, but also feel better about taking tests and enjoy their school life more.

Notes:

1. Mehrens, W.A., and I.J. Lehmann, **Measurements and Evaluation in Education and Psychology**, (3rd ed.) New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1984.
2. Millman, J., and W. Puak, **How To Take Tests**, New York: McGraw Hill, 1969.

FIGURE 14
TESTWISENESS: AN IMPORTANT INGREDIENT
IN ASSESSING STUDENT PERFORMANCE
REPRINTED FROM CAPTRENDS, SEPTEMBER, 1984.[14]

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3. Help Students Adjust Reading Speed to Material and Purpose

Speed reading is not a goal of Reading 10. Many students, however, can learn to increase their rate of reading when faster reading is appropriate. Some activities which will help students increase their rate of reading include:

- learning how to concentrate and to become attentively involved in the reading act; learning how to shut off or shut out distractions
- using a white card as a pacer, holding it under the line of print and moving it down the page in advance of eye movement
- learning to read thought units rather than individual words
- decreasing the number of fixations per line and increasing peripheral intake of information
- reducing the number of regressions by becoming more confident in the ability to learn from first exposure to text
- speeding up reading for short bursts in timed tests; discussing how speed has been increased; setting personal goals for faster reading.

There is no prescribed optimum rate to which every student should aspire; rather, students can learn methods for increasing their rate of comprehension when the material being read and the purpose for which it is being read allow greater speed.

For more capable readers, the opportunity to learn strategies for increasing speed of comprehension will be highly motivating. For less confident readers, specific methods which can be learned, practised and tested, will give a positive sense of accomplishment and may help to overcome an objection to reading: "I'd read, but it takes me so long I get bored." For both kinds of readers, good speed reading techniques encourage reading for meaning, reading to grasp main ideas, reading in larger thought units, and thus actively aid increased comprehension.

Rate of reading must be constantly related to reader purpose in reading a piece of material. For some kinds of reading, students may also need to be taught close reading techniques, including:

- pre-reading activities: scanning headings, skimming for main ideas, relating relevant prior experience to material to be read
- re-reading activities: going back over a passage until one is sure that the main idea is grasped
- note-making activities: summarizing a paragraph and then a section of material
- charting and diagramming as a means of understanding relationships between ideas.

Students should be taught to adjust their rates of speed in reading relative to their purposes in reading.

Bacon's formula still stands:

"Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention."

CONCLUSION

In the role of fellow reader and coach, the teacher is in a position to offer instruction in specific skills, relate skills to accomplishing reader purpose, and encourage real reading and real response to reading. Reading 10 thus becomes a collaboration of teacher and students learning together how to become more flexible and more confident in their reading.

FOOTNOTES

PART FOUR

1. Emerald V. Dechant, Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Disability, West Nyack, NY: Parker Publishing Company, 1968, p. 57.

2. Summary of cue systems is drawn from:

   E. Brooks Smith, Kenneth S. Goodman, and Robert Meredith, "The Reading Process: A Psycholinguistic View," from Language and Thinking in the Elementary School, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

   Summary of implications for methodology is drawn from:

   Harry Singer, "A Century of Landmarks in Reading and Learning from Text at the High School Level: Research, Theories, and Instructional Strategies," Journal of Reading, January 1983, pp. 332-342.

3. Margaret Meek, Learning to Read, London, Bodley Head, pp. 205-206.

4. Margaret Hunsberger, "Reading Investigations: What Directions?" Journal of Reading, V. 25, No. 7, April, 1983, pp. 629-633.

5. Eric Lunzer and Keith Gardner, editors, The Effective Use of Reading, London: Heinemann Educational Books for the Schools Council, 1979, p. 313.

6. Robert J. Tierney and P. David Pearson, "Learning to Learn from Text: A Framework for Improving Classroom Practice," Reading Education Report No. 30, Center for the Study of Reading, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, August 1981, pp. 29-30.

7. Charts on pp. 58 and 59 are drawn from:

   Robert J. Tierney and P. David Pearson, "Toward a Composing Model of Reading," Language Arts, Vol. 60, No. 5, May 1983, pp. 569-579.

8. Tierney and Pearson, "Learning to Learn from Text," pp. 23-24.

9. Cathy Roller Wilson, "Teaching Reading Comprehension by Connecting the Known to the New," The Reading Teacher, January 1983, p. 383.

10. Tierney and Pearson, as above.

    For fuller discussion see:

    David W. Moore, John E. Readence and Robert J. Richelman, Prereading Activities for Content Area Reading and Learning, IRA Reading Aids Series, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1982.

11. Clive Carre, "Language Teaching and Learning: Science, Number 4" in Mike Torbe, ed., Language Teaching and Learning (Series), London: Ward Lock Educational, 1981, p. 84. Carre draws his description of SQ3R from Christopher Walker (1977).

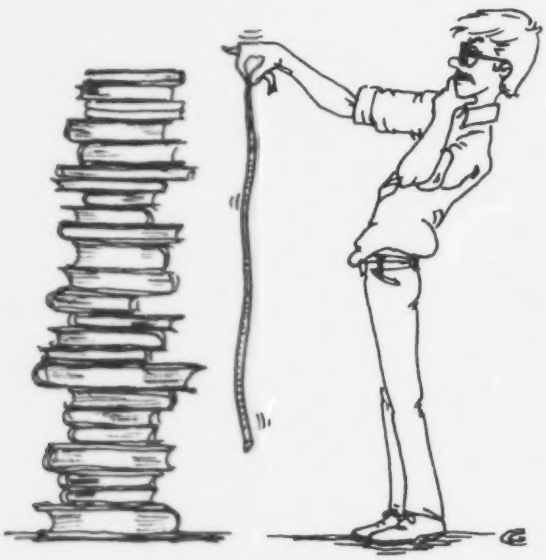
12. Joseph Sanacore, "Improving Reading Through Prior Knowledge and Writing," Journal of Reading, May 1983, p. 718.

13. Steve Hoffman, "Using Student Journals to Teach Study Skills," Journal of Reading, January 1983, p. 334 ff.

14. This excerpt abridged from:

Kim Onn Yap "Testwiseness: An Important Ingredient in Assessing Student Performance," in CAPTRENDS (Insert), September 1984. Center for Performance Assessment, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Portland, Oregon.

PART FIVE:
EVALUATION
WHAT CAN AND SHOULD BE MEASURED



Evaluation of Reading 10 presents some interesting problems.

EVALUATION

WHAT CAN AND SHOULD BE MEASURED

INTRODUCTION

Reading 10 acknowledges:

- the essentially private nature of the reader-text interaction
- the importance of reader purpose and prior knowledge in the making of meaning
- the importance of acknowledging and building on student strengths.

And so, the process of evaluation presents some interesting problems.

This section suggests the kinds of activities which can be undertaken by teachers and students in an attempt to gather useful and valid information about changes in student reading behaviour. There are three elements of the evaluative process in Reading 10.

- Gathering information for diagnosis.
- Assessing reading extension and improvement and making adjustments in instructional strategies.
- Gathering, interpreting and quantifying information in order to assess student success or failure in the course as a whole.

Remembering that the purpose of all activities in Reading 10 is to increase the students' facility in making sense and gaining satisfaction from print, educators should be wary of assigning "grade levels" to students or "readability formulae" to the material they read. Grade level ratings fail to take into account the way in which reader purpose drives the reading process. Readability formulae fail to account for differences in reader familiarity with the content.

Grade level scores provide very little useful information concerning a student's reading ability. Many students fail to find any reason to try to understand the short, de-contextualized passages assigned on the usual standardized tests. The grade level score may serve the negative purpose of reinforcing a negative reader self-image.

GO AHEAD! TEST YOURSELF

The passages excerpted overleaf will demonstrate how difficult reading material may be if sufficient background information or context is lacking. Some of these passages may be unreadable (in the sense of meaning being made of them) for some readers of this monograph. These same passages might be quite comprehensible to some members of a Reading 10 class. Whether or not each of these passages presents problems to a specific reader will depend in large part upon whether or not that reader has relevant prior knowledge to contribute to the process of making meaning. The words themselves are not difficult. But the reading is not therefore easy.

Most standardized reading tests present the reader with short passages which do not present a lot of contextual clues to meaning. The differences in reader background are generally not adequately taken into account. Alternative methods for discovering student needs and measuring student progress are necessary. The rest of this section offers practical suggestions for effective classroom evaluation of reading growth

The batsmen were merciless against the bowlers. The bowlers placed their men in slips and covers. But to no avail. The batsmen hit one four after another along with an occasional six. Not once did a ball look like it would hit their stumps or be caught.[1]

How might the phenomenon of solid gas relate to the mysterious disappearances of ships and aircraft at sea? This too may be the result of natural gas blowouts. Richard McIver (McIver Consultants International, Houston, Texas) suggests that the hydrate zone acts as an impermeable barrier to underlying gas fields that accumulate where temperatures are too high for the formation of gas hydrates. If the seal cracks or breaks up because of an earthquake or other disturbance, free gas and chunks of decomposing hydrate shoot to the surface, erupting as waterspouts or causing turbulent patches of water. A large enough gas flow could produce a highly concentrated flammable bubble above the surface of the sea, posing a danger not only to ships but to low-flying aircraft.[2]

Jesel's approach called for sealing off the front of the block with a plate to get the cam drive out of the oil, both for improved drainback to the pan and to eliminate any possible power loss incurred when whirring the drive through the lubricant. Under the stock front cover there's plenty of action -- oil coming from the front cam bearing and number one main bearing on its way back to the sump. Jesel fabricated an aluminum cover to seal off this area entirely. (The prototype unit is pictured here; production covers will be cast aluminum.) A hole at the bottom end lets the crank snout protrude through, just like a stock timing chain cover, and there's a bore at the upper end to accept the cam drive adapter.

Making the belt drive operate was tougher than just buying two pulleys and a belt from the local hardware store. First Jesel fabricated a lower cog wheel from 8620 steel, case hardening it for toughness and adding large diameter snap rings front and back to act as fore and aft stops for the toothed belt. A top pulley twice the diameter of the lower was fashioned from 6061 aluminum and hard anodized to resist wear from the grit it may see in racing service. Jesel got together with Uniroyal and had a 20mm wide Power Grip HTD design belt cut to length so no tension device would be required. The belt is a high torque drive, round tooth design, which does a better job of distributing load across the tooth as well as resisting wear due to dirt and sand.[3]

In terms of pure technology, AT&T's new Unix PC is a jewel of a computer. It is immensely powerful for a desktop micro, with 32-bit architecture, state-of-the-art communications capabilities, a bit-mapped screen, and a virtual memory that lets you work with files that well exceed the limits of your RAM. Its menu-driven user interface is kind to the neophyte yet fast and straightforward enough that it won't irritate the experienced user.

The system is built around Motorola's 68010, a muscular relative of the 68000 used in Apple's Macintosh. The 68010 is agile, with a clock speed of 10 MHz, and can access up to 2 megabytes of RAM. This microprocessor is also responsible for the virtual-memory capabilities of the Unix PC, allowing portions of large files to be automatically "swapped" from RAM to disk memory.

In minimum configuration, the Unix PC comes with a half megabyte of RAM, a 12-inch monochrome monitor with a screen resolution of 720 by 348 pixels, and a built-in 300/1200-baud modem. The basic system includes one half-megabyte 5 1/4-inch floppy-disk drive and a 10-megabyte hard-disk drive.[4]

The public's intuitive awareness of the unacceptable risk posed by our present nuclear strategy is well founded. Our security demands that we replace that policy with one that is in firm touch with nuclear reality. If neither Star Wars I nor Star Wars II is the answer, what is?

The risk of catastrophic escalation of nuclear operations, and the futility of defense, lead us to base our proposal on the axiom that the initiation of nuclear warfare against a similarly armed opponent would be an irrational act. Hence, as we have said, nuclear weapons have only one purpose--that of preventing their use. They must not do less; they cannot do more. Thus, a restructuring of nuclear forces designed to reduce the risk of nuclear war must be our goal. All policies, every existing program, and each new initiative must be judged in that light.[5]

As expected, the Hall Commission has recommended paying the "Crow benefit" directly to prairie producers of grains and other crops.

The grant is currently paid to the railways, which pass along the benefit in the shape of reduced grain freight rates. Under the Hall proposal, sharply higher freight rates would be offset by direct payments to producers. All grains, oilseeds, and other crops would be eligible, regardless of whether they were shipped (by rail or truck) to export markets, to domestic markets outside the prairies, or to domestic markets within the prairies. Forages, and grains grown for on-farm feeding, would be excluded.

The main effect of the change would be lower feed grain costs in the prairie region. Since grain growers would get the freight benefit, even on crops sold to a neighbor, non-board local markets would cease to be simply last-resort alternatives when delivery quotas are tight. Under the present system, producers benefit from the subsidy only if they ship grain by rail out of the prairie region. The net result is that local feed mills, livestock feeders and other secondary processors such as oilseed crushers must in effect include the freight subsidy in their offering prices.[6]

ASSESSING STUDENT STRENGTHS IN READING: DIAGNOSTIC PROCEDURES

Diagnostic procedures have typically highlighted student weaknesses in reading, heightening within students the feeling that reading is a task at which they have failed and are likely to fail again. The approach suggested for this course is summed up by Pearson and Spiro:

> Instead of asking the question, "What does the student not know . . .?" educators should be asking, "What is it that the student does know that I can use as an anchor point--a bridge--to help develop the concepts he or she needs?"[7]

In Reading 10, diagnostic activities should focus on reading skills, strengths, and interests that students bring with them, rather than on weaknesses. Aware of their present strengths, students can be encouraged to develop and build on them.

The teacher should also help students realize that all readers experience difficulty in some reading situations. With this recognition, the student can learn that reading difficulties can be confronted and overcome through learned skills and strategies. Learning to identify a specific problem ("I don't understand the words the author is using."), rather than merely shrugging ("I'm not a good reader."), is an important step toward reading improvement.

During the diagnostic phase of Reading 10, the student should become aware that:

- it is all right to have reading difficulties
- all readers experience problems from time to time
- specific difficulties, once recognized, can be overcome by specific strategies.

Here are some methods for diagnosing student reading strengths and needs.

1. Observation of Actual Reading Behaviours

   Margaret Meek suggests that diagnosis should focus on the reader's "actual manoeuvres in the face of print". She suggests the following questions as guides to gaining knowledge of a student's reading behaviours.

- How does the student look at the page?
- Where is the student looking?
- Does the student guess, or wait to be told what the print says?
- How does what the student thinks it says compare with the text?
- Does the student read the labels on the packets in the cupboard or the signs on the highway?[8]

Some of these observations might be difficult for the classroom teacher. However, students could work in pairs to analyze each other's reading behaviours, using a detailed guide prepared by the teacher. Students could be encouraged to assess their own approaches to reading through attitude and behaviour checklists. In some cases, the teacher might work with one student at a time while the rest of the class is occupied with reading.

2. Using Cloze Testing to Learn About Reading Behaviours

Developed by John Bormuth (1975), the cloze procedure allows the teacher to learn about a reader's ability to come to meaning from a passage when the cues are reduced.[9]

The cloze test examines the extent to which semantic, syntactic, and grapho-phonemic cues are used by the student to arrive at meaning. Sample cloze tests are shown in Figures 15, 16 and 17 on the following pages.

a. Procedures

- Select a passage of about 250 words in length and, beginning with a word selected in the first sentence, delete every fifth (or tenth) word.
- Type up the passage with blanks of equal size inserted for each deleted word.
- Provide the students with oral or written instructions similar to those shown in the sample text in Figure 15 (page 84).
- Score the test, giving full marks for the exact word or for synonyms of nearly the same meaning; part marks for "good tries" -- that is, words that make good and reasonable sense in the context; and no marks for words that do not make sense in the context, or significantly alter the meaning of the passage.

b. Cautions

Because students are working with reduced cues, scores on cloze tests are typically very low. This should be clearly explained to students to prevent discouragement. Cloze tests should not be used as a basis for student marks. They are, however, useful as a way of:

- establishing a quantified base measurement against which progress in coming to meaning can be measured
- coming to know how effectively students grapple with the problem of reading text for meaning
- discussing results with students and leading them toward an understanding of the interactive cue systems available to them as they approach text.

c. Variations

While the standard method for preparing a cloze passage is to delete every fifth word (as shown in Figure 17), a number of other approaches may be taken. The sample tests in Figures 15 and 16 demonstrate some of the possible variations. Having the students do a variety of cloze samples would lead to fruitful discussion about the role of structural cues, contextual definitions, and background knowledge in coming to meaning.

In the sample cloze test in Figure 15, the rule of deleting every fifth word was applied only approximately. A word was omitted only where there were sufficient structural cues to enable the student to make an informed attempt at guessing the missing word.

INSTRUCTIONS

At the bottom of this page is a sample of the kind of test which may be new to you. This kind of test is made by copying a few paragraphs from a book. Some words are left out of the paragraphs, and blank spaces put where the words were taken out.

Your job is to guess what word was left out of each space and to write that word in the space. It will help you in taking this kind of test if you remember these things:

1. Write only one word in each blank
2. Try to fill every blank. Don't be afraid to guess
3. You may skip hard blanks and come back to them later
4. Wrong spelling will not count against you if we can tell what word you meant.

Here is a sample paragraph for you to read:

The settlement of Red (1) _____ stands roughly where the (2) _____ of Winnipeg stands today. By the 1840's it was occupied mostly (3) _____ Metis who were people of European and Indian ancestry. Most Metis (4) _____ little interest in farming or establishing a permanent _____ at Red River. They were a hunting (6) _____ forced to follow the buffalo (7) _____ and so life was (8) _____. The settlement (9) _____ little more than a cluster of Metis tents around the Fort Garry trading (10) _____ .

(from Canada Today, p. 237).

FIGURE 15
SAMPLE CLOZE TEST #1

The original text contained these words: (1) River; (2) city; (3) by; (4) had; (5) settlement; (6) people; (7) herds; (8) nomadic; (9) was; (10) post.

In Figure 16 below, an early key word has been deleted, and key knowledge words are deleted throughout the passage. Reading this passage would thus be much more difficult and require much greater prior knowledge of the subject than reading the passage shown in Figure 15. After attempting a passage such as the one shown in Figure 16, students could discuss what cues they used in making their word choices.

The (1) _____ of Red River stands roughly where the city of (2) _____ stands today. By the 1840's it was occupied mostly by (3) _____ who were people of European and Indian ancestry. Most Metis had little interest in (4) _____ or establishing a permanent settlement at (5) _____ River. They were a hunting people, forced to follow the (6) _____ herds and so life was (7) _____. The settlement was little more than a cluster of Metis (8) _____ around the Fort (9) _____ trading (10) _____.

FIGURE 16
SAMPLE CLOZE TEST #2

The original text contained these words: (1) Settlement; (2) Winnipeg; (3) Metis; (4) farming; (5) Red; (6) buffalo; (7) nomadic; (8) tents; (9) Garry; (10) post.

In Figure 17 below, the standard cloze testing procedure has been followed, with every fifth word deleted. Students could do this and one of the previous formats and discuss which variation of the text was easier to complete, and why.

The settlement of Red (1) _____ stands roughly where the (2) _____ of Winnipeg stands today. (3) _____ the 1840's it was (3) _____ mostly by Metis who (4) _____ people of European and (5) _____ ancestry. Most Metis had (6) interest in farming or (7) _____ a permanent settlement at (8) _____ River. They were a (9) _____ little more than a (13) _____ of Metis tents around (14) _____ Fort Garry trading post.

FIGURE 17
SAMPLE CLOZE TEST #3

Another variation of cloze testing is the multiple-choice form shown in the example below. This will yield better scores to students and will serve to test the extent to which they are making meaning from the context of what they are reading.

These sample questions below are from the multiple-choice version of a cloze test prepared for the State of New York (Board of Regents, 1979). The test has a series of passages graded by vocabulary. Reading proficiency is measured by how far along in the test a student can get with correct responses. The sample questions are taken from an early section and a later section of such a test.

The Arctic is very far north. It is a cold land. It is icy. It is snowy. Winter is long. Winter is hard. Some plants can grow there. But nothing grows tall. Flowers are tiny. Grasses are low. Even the trees are __1__. They grow lying down on the ground. They can't grow tall. It is too cold.

1. a) wet
   b) short
   c) dead
   d) gray
   e) bare

Eskimos live in the Arctic. They know how to dress. They wear warm jackets and pants. These are made from animal skins. The fur is worn next to the body. They wear boots made from seal skins. These __2__ are important. They keep the Eskimo snug. They keep him dry.

2. a) clothes
   b) journeys
   c) lamps
   d) jobs
   e) homes

In the fall, the sun rises later each day. It sets earlier. Then the sun does not rise at all. It is dark all the time. There is hardly any__3__. This is the Arctic winter. It is cold. It is dark. It is hard to hunt. So the Eskimo must be ready. He must hunt before winter comes. He must find food. He must put it away. He must__4__ as much as he can. Then he will have food in winter.

3. a) wind
   b) water
   c) light
   d) soil
   e) industry

4. a) sleep
   b) save
   c) move
   d) breathe
   e) drink

An indispensable element in the development of telephony was the continual improvement of telephone station instruments, those operating units located at the client's premises. Modern units normally consist of a transmitter, receiver, and transformer. They also contain a bell or equivalent summoning device, a mechanism for controlling the units' connection to the client's line, and various associated items, like dials. All of these __78__ have changed over the years. The transmitter, especially, has undergone enormous refinement during the last century.

78. a) parts
b) costs
c) services
d) models
e) routes

Bell's original electromagnetic transmitter functioned likewise as receiver, the same instrument being held alternately to mouth and ear. But having to __79__ the instrument this way was inconvenient. Suggestions understandably emerged for mounting the transmitter and receiver onto a common handle, thereby creating what are now known as handsets. Transmitter and receiver were, in fact, later __80__ this way. Combination handsets were produced for commercial utilization late in the nineteenth century, but prospects for their acceptance were uncertain as the initial quality of transmissions with the handsets was disappointing. But __81__ transmissions followed. With adequately high transmission standards attained, acceptance of handsets was virtually assured.

79. a) store
b) use
c) test
d) strip
e) clean

80. a) rounded
b) marked
c) covered
d) priced
e) coupled

81. a) shorter
b) fewer
c) better
d) faster
e) cheaper

FIGURE 18
FROM ALAN PURVES, "COMPETENCE IN READING"[10]

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3. Miscue Analysis

Another method of gaining information about student reading is miscue analysis, a process developed by Kenneth and Yetta Goodman.[11]

a. Procedure

- Select an appropriate passage for the student to read.

  A story or other reading selection, which is somewhat difficult for the student and which can be read at one sitting, is chosen. The selection should have continuity of meaning, so unified stories or articles will probably prove most suitable. The passage should be long enough to generate a number of miscues (Goodman suggests 25 miscues for classroom analysis; 50 for research studies).

- Prepare the material for reading into a tape recorder.

  The student reads directly from the book. The teacher needs a worksheet on which the story has been retyped, preserving the lines of the story exactly as they are in the book. Each line on the worksheet is numbered with the page and line of the story, so that miscues may be identified as to where they occur.

- Have the student read onto tape while the teacher marks the code sheet.

  The student is made comfortable with text and equipment, and is assured that no grade will be assigned.

  As the reading progresses, the teacher follows on the worksheet, marking the miscues on the typescript. No help is given during the reading. The tape is later replayed to complete and verify the marking of miscues on the worksheet, which then becomes the permanent record of the session.

  After the student has completed the reading, the teacher may ask for a retelling of the story or ask open-ended questions to find out whether or not the student has understood what has been read.

- Code and study miscues

  (i) count the reader's miscues

  (ii) subtract all miscues that are shifts into the reader's own dialect

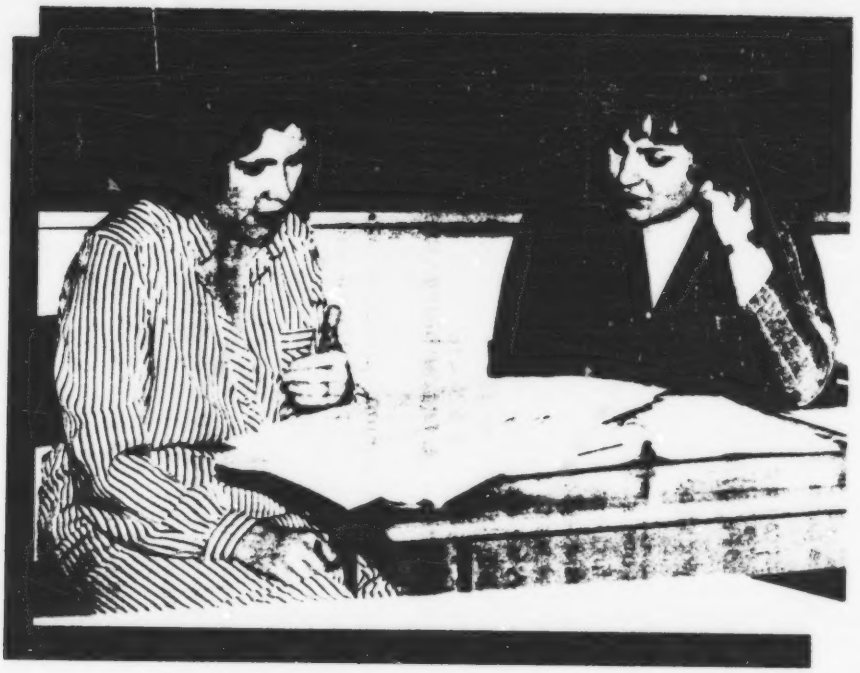
  (iii) count all the miscues that result in acceptable meaning before correction by the reader

  (iv) count all miscues that result in unacceptable meaning at first reading, but which are successfully corrected by the reader

(v) add the miscues in steps (iii) and (iv). The result is the total number of miscues semantically acceptable or corrected. This score, expressed as a percentage of all miscues, gives a **comprehending** score, a measure of the reader's ability to come successfully to meaning from a print passage.

By carefully studying the pattern of miscues made by a particular student, the teacher can learn if the student is giving adequate attention to gaining meaning; if the student has some specific problems, such as confusion of **wh** with **th** words or inattention to function words. Instruction can be planned to aid the student in areas of specific need.

Figure 19, on pages 90 and 91, is a sample of a teacher-marked transcript of student reading, together with analysis.



1. "What are they?" asked Sue . . .
2. "May we take pictures and send them to the contest?"
3. One day Sue was taking a picture in the garden.
4. The shallow basin of Salt Creek Wash became a . . .
5. It had been a long day for the dogs and Peggy limped heavily as she approached the camp.
6. Peggy trotted off to search the camp for scraps of bones . . .

Just a quick look at these examples makes one aware that a number of factors might be involved in the reader's miscues: the occurrence of they in the near visual periphery in the first example; the close graphic and sound relationship between taking and talking in the third example; the compound noun structure of the dogs and Peggy in the fifth example. The complexity of factors serves to give each of the miscues a different surface flavour and helps to account for the varying degrees of success the readers had. But underlying all of these variations is the basic fact that the readers were actively anticipating and producing structures as they read. They were not passively taking in the author's prestructured material.

In much the same way as they anticipate structure, readers can be seen to anticipate meaning.

In example 7 (page 91) the reader anticipates a common phrase, things to do, and then on the basis of the new coat and the graphic similarity between horse expects rugs for our house in place of feed for our horse. Living in an urban setting probably also contributed to this miscue.

The reader can be so sure of the story or plot line that he or she knows the intent of what is coming next and can produce such physically gross changes as "Yes, you may go and have fun" (example 8) without changing meaning at all. Much the same situation exists in example 9, with the added element that the reader anticipated the repetition of structure from the prior sentence. Structure repetition is a likely possibility, as any connoisseur of primerese is well aware.

Example 10 comes from a story about a sick zoo elephant who refuses to take her medicine. One of the readers reacts to the fact that powders can generally be said to be sprinkled into something but only liquids can be spilled. The second reader, concentrating on the stealth of the doctor, slips the powder into the water.

7. "I wish we could all do go.

   But we have many things to buy.
   We have to get a new coat for you.
   We have to buy feed for our horse." house

8. "Yes, you may go and do not have to stay home, . . ." fun

9. Away they went to the show.
   They were not too late after all.

10. s1 slipped s2 He spilled sprinkled the powder into Sudana's water trough.

11. Cat laughed. learned

12. "Let's try giving Claribel some oxygen." aspirin

13. "But I guess I added too many chemicals to the mixture." cyclamates

14. Tapping Taping the reader.

One folk tale tells of the time when Tiger was not a good hunter and Cat agreed to teach him. Cat teaches and Tiger learns fast. Then when he thinks he has learned everything, Tiger decides to eat Cat but Cat has saved one trick. The Tiger says "I do not know how to jump backward" and the reader says "Cat learned" in place of "Cat laughed" (example 11).

Can we be surprised that in reading a story about a sick canary any modern child would suggest an aspirin (example 12)? Or, that in reading about a boy conducting experiments in his mother's kitchen, the reader might conclude that there were too many cyclamates in the mixture (example 13)?

FIGURE 19
MARKED TRANSCRIPT AND DISCUSSION FROM CAROLYN BURKE
"ORAL READING ANALYSIS"[12]

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4. A Word of Caution

In both cloze testing and miscue analysis, we are considering methods which are useful for diagnosis, rather than for assigning grades. The real value of these methods lies in the insights into the reading process which they afford to the teacher. The teacher can use information derived from these methods in planning for instruction.

Miscue analysis is time-consuming, but it does allow for one-to-one interaction between teacher and student. The teacher who wishes to use this method of learning about student reading strengths and weaknesses will find a way to work with individual students while the rest of the class is engaged in other reading activities.

Once the teacher becomes familiar with the process, he or she can use it in a less formal manner to gain useful insights into students' reading procedures.

ONGOING EVALUATION: MEASURING GROWTH AND ADJUSTING THE PROGRAM

The two reasons for ongoing evaluation throughout the Reading 10 course are:

- to measure growth, so that both student and teacher know that progress is being made in improving reading ability
- to adjust the instructional and learning activities to reflect student needs.

A teacher may choose to grade work throughout the course and average these marks at the end of each reporting period. Or the teacher may choose to maintain the "coach role" throughout the course, withholding verdict in the form of a mark until the end of each reporting period (or unit of instruction), then applying a holistic marking procedure. Such a holistic marking scale is shown on page 96 (Figure 22).

INFORMAL ONGOING EVALUATION

Here are some tools which may be used for informal evaluation of student progress during the course:

1. Teacher Observations About Student Reading Behaviour

During Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading sessions, the teacher should sometimes observe student behaviour and record observations. It is important to the accuracy of such records that the teacher distinguish between the narrative record of observation and the inferences drawn or comments made. (A sample observation card is shown in Figure 20, page 93.)

Name BROWN, Rick

Class READING 10C Date 13 Nov. 87

OBSERVATIONS: Rick spent most of the period flipping through car magazines, pausing to read a few lines or study a picture. He finally settled on one article which he read for about ten minutes, then began flipping pages again.

(See over for COMMENTS)

COMMENTS: Rick did not make very good use of a full period given to "find out something you want to know." Perhaps he needed help in stating what information he wanted.

INFERENCES: Rick's restless behaviour today may indicate that he has not focused on the task or that he lacks skills for seeking specific information.

Teacher Signature M. MacLaren

FIGURE 20
SAMPLE OF ANECDOTAL RECORD OF
TEACHER OBSERVATION

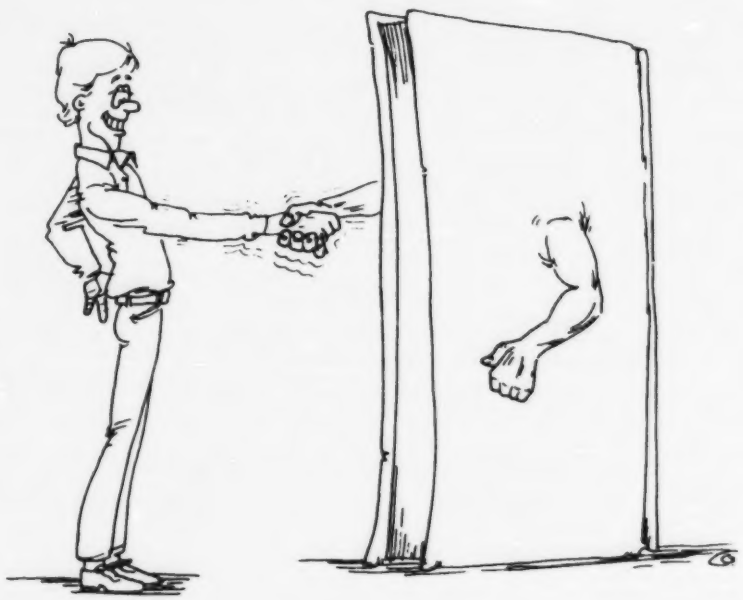
2. Attitudinal Self -Checklist

At the beginning of the course, and from time to time throughout the course, the teacher can provide opportunity for students to administer attitudinal checklists, recording the students' perceptions about their reading patterns and about themselves as readers. The first of these checklists could be stapled inside the individual student's reading file to serve as a base against which the student can measure his or her own growth in reading.

3. Individual Student Reading File

Each student should have an individual reading file in which such materials as the following may be kept as a record of personal progress:

- student-developed profiles of reading strengths and weaknesses, based on their perceptions of where their reading problems lie
- attitudinal self-checklists, described above
- results from cloze testing or miscue analysis, with the reading process sampled three or four times throughout the course
- "I Recommend" book discussions. A sample form for this kind of "book review" is shown on page 95 (Figure 21). These reviews should be publicized in some way: by posting on the bulletin board; by placing a copy in a large looseleaf binder marked "Best Bets for Good Reading", or by printing a student newsletter related to reading. Copies of contributions to such sharing should be placed in each individual student's file, with two or three reviews being required of the student during the course.



Some students may discover that books can be friends.

I recommend _____
(Book Title)

written by _____
(Author)

as a book well worth reading.

I especially liked _____

_____

_____

_____

I also liked _____

_____

_____

The problem(s) I experienced in reading this book

_____

_____

_____

I overcame this difficulty by _____

_____

_____

I think this book would be especially enjoyed by _____

_____

_____

Date: _____ Name: _____

FIGURE 21
SAMPLE "I RECOMMEND" REVIEW FORM

FORMAL ONGOING EVALUATION

More formal evaluation techniques may be needed for:

- reporting progress in the form of marks on report cards
- discussing progress with others concerned about the student (e.g., parents, counsellors, reading consultants)
- motivating students to make the effort required to extend reading strategies; to widen the range of material read with understanding and fluency, and to concentrate on print text.

Here are some tools for ongoing formal evaluation; that is, evaluation which can be quantified as necessary.

1. Student-maintained "Reading Logs"

   These were discussed fully in Part Four, page 60. For evaluation purposes, reading logs could be graded on:

   a. Quantity of Reading Reported

      A minimum number of pages to be read could be established with students at the beginning of each reporting period. For example, a minimum of 200 pages read in a 6-week period will give a grade of 50% for quantity of reading. For every 50 additional pages read, you will be granted an additional 10% to a maximum of 100% for quantity of reading.

   b. Quality of Reflection on Reading

      A subjective percentage mark can be assigned, using a standard marking sheet such as the one shown in Figure 22 below.

Sample:

	Total Possible
You have thought carefully about the reading process	(25)
You have recorded your responses to reading intelligibly	(25)
You are showing an ability to process increasingly difficult reading material	(25)
You are showing a willingness to widen the range of your reading interests	(25)
	(100)

FIGURE 22
SAMPLE MARKING SHEET FOR STUDENT READING LOGS

2. Self-Assessment of Reading

Several times during the course, students can be encouraged to assess their own growth in reading. The form on page 96 (Figure 22), adapted to self-reflection (e.g., "I have thought carefully about the reading process.") could be used. Self-assessment checks such as the one shown in Figure 23 below could also be given and scored holistically.

SELF-ASSESSMENT #1

1. Listed below are three main purposes for reading:

   Reading to learn
   Reading to function in society
   Reading to satisfy personal interests

   (a) Number these purposes from 1-3, placing number 1 beside the kind of reading you think is most difficult, and number 3 beside the kind of reading you find least difficult. Explain your choices in the space below:

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

   (b) Tell one way in which you hope to improve your reading for the purpose you find most difficult.

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

2. What is one area of reading in which you feel very successful? Explain.

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

SELF-ASSESSMENT #1/page 2

3. Comment on your use of Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading time in class. Discuss your use of this time in terms of the quantity and quality of your reading.

4. Set a goal in reading toward which you will work over the next two weeks.

5. Would you like a conference with the teacher?

FIGURE 23
SAMPLE SELF-ASSESSMENT
(SUITABLE FOR USE AFTER FIRST UNIT)

3. Unit-End Evaluation

Unit-end evaluation should focus on the particular strategies which have been emphasized and practised during the unit. The specific objectives of each unit should be clearly identified and used in pre-unit and post-unit evaluation.

Questions should include those which test awareness of the reading process as well as those which involve the student in demonstrating facility in a reading situation.

Exams, unit-end or term-end, should be designed to allow students to display their ability to make meaning from various kinds of print materials.

Tierney and Pearson suggest that what we need to ascertain in checking comprehension are:

- To what extent was the reader's understanding adequate for the text and purposes for reading?

- Can the reader's interpretation be justified when his or her understanding diverges from apparent authorial intention?

They suggest, for example, that students might be asked to rate the acceptability of each response to a multiple choice question. In follow-up discussion, students could compare the rationale behind their various rankings.[13]

Unit-end exams should have teaching as well as testing value. In preparation for the examination, sample questions of the kind the students will confront should be presented and practised. Strategies for dealing with "exam language" should be taught. At least in the early part of the year, exam instructions (and perhaps even questions) should be read aloud by the teacher while students follow on their own copies.

After a test has been given and marked, it should be fully discussed. Students should consider such questions as:

- What errors were caused by lack of knowledge?

- What errors were caused by failure to decode instructions?

- What errors were caused by inattention or hurry?

A sample outline of a unit-end exam is given in Figure 24 over the next three pages.

UNIT–END EXAM BLUEPRINT

UNIT: READING TO LEARN

This exam is based on two articles about Steve Fonyo.

The first article is read and discussed with the teacher as the final activity of the unit.

The second article is assigned student reading, and the exam questions are based on student understanding and response to the two articles.

Concept/Objectives	Type of Question	% of Time and Mark
The reader learns that reading can fulfil a variety of important purposes; one of these is to gain information. A-1, 3, 4.	Open-ended (answer in two or three clear sentences): If you found one of these articles in Maclean's, would you read it? Why? Why not?	15%
The reader learns to recognize and use prior knowledge to assist in coming to meaning. (a) prior experience of life B-1	Choose two of the following three questions to answer in a clear sentence or two: 1. Are you a runner? How does your experience help you evaluate Fonyo's achievement? 2. What makes a person a hero? Do you consider Fonyo to be one? Why, or why not? 3 When was the article written? How do you know?	20%
(b) prior experience of language B-2	Questions about words in the articles/ sentences: 1. Define a word used in the first article and discussed during shared reading.	10%
	2. Define a word contextually explained in the second article. Could be a matching question.	10%

Exam Blueprint, Continued

Concept/Objectives	Type of Question	% of Time and Mark
The reader learns to approach reading aware of the way in which the writer's purpose affects structure, organization, and format of text. C-1, 2, 3, 4 The reader learns to select and develop reading strategies appropriate to purpose in reading text. D-1, 3(d), 4	Questions about overall understanding and ability to support overall impression by close reading. e.g., What is the major impression of Fonyo which the author creates? Find three words or phrases used in the text of the article to confirm your statement.	10% 20%
The reader learns to evaluate print materials read for information. E-2	Open-ended questions such as: Which article did you like better? Why? Which article gave you more information about Fonyo as a person? Which article gave you more information about Fonyo's cross-Canada run?	5% 5% 5%
		100%

FIGURE 24
UNIT–END EXAM BLUEPRINT

Notes

1. Written responses should be marked in a way that focuses on knowledge of and response to reading, rather than skill in grammar and spelling.
2. For any disadvantaged readers, oral administration of the test could be considered.
3. Oral reading of instructions with adequate clarification may be necessary for some classes.

SUMMATIVE EVALUATION: INFORMAL FINAL EVALUATION

Margaret Meek says, "You should know what progress looks like," and offers this checklist:

- a student picks up and looks at books voluntarily
- reading becomes a desire to find out what happens next
- readers asks their own questions about the text
- readers disagree with the author
- words come out in meaningful groups instead of one by one
- readers say, "Don't tell me!" or, "I'll read it."

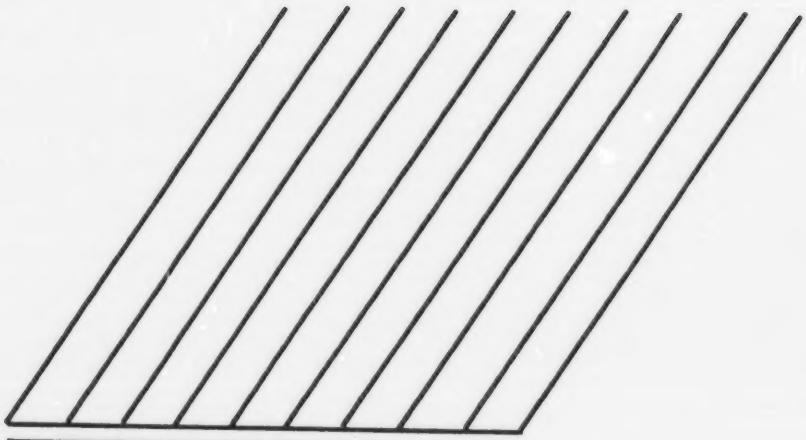
"Fluency," she concludes, "is a feeling, a knowing that you can make text mean without anxiety because you want to.... Anything that contributes to this is progress."[14]

Teacher observation will continue to be -- right to the end of the course -- an important source of evaluative data.

At the end of the course, a student self-checklist, paralleling but not necessarily repeating the one given at the beginning of the course, will help to assess change in attitudes toward reading.

The range of reading material the students have read will be indicated by their reading logs. This will help the teacher assess whether or not the students have extended the range of material they are able to read with fluency.

SAMPLE MARKS BOOK PAGE



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
BROWN, Jane	7	5	10	10	7	70	75	184	75
CHIU, Lee	10	5	10	15	7	90	85	222	90
DION, Darcy	3	5	5	5	5	65	70	158	65
DUNNIGAN, Don	5	0	5	10	7	50	60	137	45
FORZA, Tony	8	5	10	10	10	80	75	198	80

FIGURE 25
SAMPLE MARKS BOOK PAGE

Notes

1. Teacher observation of Uninterrupted Sustained Silent Reading. A holistic mark for a particular day of observation. A scale of observation could be something like this:

   0-2 not on task; doing something else; disturbing others

   3-4 wastes time in selecting material; does not settle down to concentrated reading

   5-6 selects material with little sense of purpose; on task some of the time

   7-8 selects reading material purposefully; generally on task

   9-10 comes to class with reading material already selected; spends time on focused, engaged reading

2. Handing in assigned work (e.g., Self-Assessment):

   0 assigned work not handed in

   3 assigned work handed in but not on time

   5 assigned work handed in on time.

3. Grade for handed-in assignment (e.g., Self-Assessment). A holistic mark on a scale such as the following:

   3 little effort shown; little reflection of interest

   5 some effort shown; student has reflected on reading process

   8 good effort shown; student has gained meaningful insights into reading process

   10 excellent work; student has thought carefully about reading and expressed well the meaningful insights gained.

4. Grade for "I Recommend" Book Review or Book Talk. A holistic grade reflecting level of attention given; understanding of the book recommended; and insights concerning the reading process.

5. See note 1.

6. Grade for Personal Reading Log. See holistic marking scale shown in Figure 22, page 96.

7. Unit–End Exam. See sample outline of unit–end exam, Figure 24, pages 100 and 101.

8. Total Marks

   A raw score representing total marks gained in a marking period. In coming to this score, teachers could assign weighting to various contributory scores to reflect importance of assignment/task.

9. Report Card Mark

   By rounding to the nearest 5, the teacher can avoid unnecessarily arbitrary distinctions between marks. The mark given is one that can be defended from a range of scores obtained on a range of student performances.

DETERMINING FINAL GRADES

Students, parents and administrators will be concerned about marks. Marks are a kind of pay system to which every student has become accustomed. The teacher should be prepared to use marks as a way of rewarding the desired behavioural outcomes of this course, as well as a way of quantifying assessment.

Naturally, the marks given throughout the term will indicate a student's progress. An exam given at the end of the course should focus on actual reading and responding. Such an exam can give the teacher further information about the student's ability to make meaning from a variety of print texts.

A teacher who maintains a marking system, such as the one shown and discussed in Figure 25 (page 103), will have a numerical basis on which to give a final grade. Each reporting period could be weighted equally, or the final reporting period could be given a heavier weighting in coming to a final mark.

Example 1	
Reporting Period 1	25%
Reporting Period 2	25%
Reporting Period 3	25%
Reporting Period 4	25%
	100%

Example 2	
Reporting Period 1	15%
Reporting Period 2	20%
Reporting Period 3	25%
Reporting Period 4	30%
Final Exam	10%
	100%

FIGURE 26
WEIGHTING OF REPORT PERIODS FOR FINAL MARKS

Student Appeals

Students should know that they have the right of appeal on any teacher-assigned mark. The grounds for any such appeal would be their reading logs, kept up to date at the end of each reading period.

Carefully maintained teacher records, such as the ones shown in the sample on page 109, will help the teacher explain marks given.

Final Examinations

If a formal final examination is required, either by the teacher's chosen evaluation method or because of administrative directives, the final examination could include questions which test both awareness of the reading process and effectiveness in using the process for the making of meaning.

Any passages assigned for reading in the examination should be of sufficient length to allow adequate cues to meaning to be gathered by the student. The re-reading of familiar material or the reading of excerpts from material read in class and fully discussed would help overcome the problem of decontextualized reading. Questions such as those shown in the Sample Self-Assessment (Figure 23, pages 97 and 98) and those shown in the Unit–End Exam Blueprint (Figure 24, pages 100 and 101) could be designed as well. The final examination could include the opportunity to demonstrate facility in such practical reading skills as understanding and filling out a form.

Open-ended questions are probably preferable but if there are time constraints on the exam itself, or on the marking of it, some kinds of multiple-choice questions might be useful. Some sample questions are shown in Figures 27 and 28 (pages 107 to 109).

TESTING FOR LITERAL COMPREHENSION

A passage is given, followed by questions. The passage should be long enough to provide a context.

Example: Top Insurance Problem

Detroit--A man of 21 is at or near his physical peak, his co-ordination may never be better, and his senses are at their sharpest.

Despite this, when a young unmarried male buys a car and applies for insurance, he will be asked to pay about 2 3/4 times the base rate. If he is married or only drives the family car part time, he must pay 1 3/4 times the base rate. And even then, many companies aren't eager for his business. Why? The insurance people say they'll probably lose money on the policy despite the much higher rate.

His particular age group (unmarried male under 25) is more accident-prone than any other. As yet, young women drivers are not penalized by high insurance rates, mainly because they are outnumbered by the men. But one insurance executive says, "We are making a serious study of the situation. It certainly may become necessary to charge them more, too."

Men and women under 25 make up only 18.4 percent of all licenced drivers. But they are involved in 28 percent of all vehicle accidents and in more than 28 percent of all fatal vehicle accidents. Motor vehicle accidents are the leading cause of death for both males and females from 15 to 24. And one of 17 persons in this age group is injured in a car every year.

Can the number of accidents on our highways be reduced? Insurance companies are searching vigorously for some new answers to this problem, other than raising rates to everyone. One suggestion is to give financial support to driver education programs in high schools.

KEY: On your answer sheet, blacken the circle containing the letter:

A if the idea stated in the test is in **AGREEMENT** with the contents of the reading passage

D if the idea stated in the test item is in **DISAGREEMENT** with the contents of the reading passage

N if the idea in the test item is **NEITHER STATED NOR SUGGESTED** in the reading passage.

151. Auto insurance base rates will increase 1 1/2 percent during the coming year._____

152. Young married men pay lower insurance rates than young bachelors._____

153. More people under 25 drive sports cars than do members of any other age group._____

154. High insurance rates are directly related to the high accident rate in the under 25 age bracket._____

155. Most of the injuries suffered by young people in auto accidents could be prevented by use of seat belts._____

156. Insurance companies have decided not to increase insurance rates for young women drivers._____

157. Young people under 25 drive more miles than older persons._____

158. Driver education programs in high schools may help reduce the number of vehicle accidents._____

FIGURE 27
SAMPLE QUESTIONS FOR TESTING FOR LITERAL COMPREHENSION
FROM ALAN PURVES, "COMPETENCE IN READING"[15]

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TESTING FOR ABILITY TO FOLLOW DIRECTIONS/ACT ON INFORMATION

1. Show three labels--one for iodine, one for aspirin, one for lemon juice. The reader could be asked such questions as:

   (a) Which one is the label for something you should not swallow?
   (b) Which one is the label for an ingredient in a salad dressing?
   (c) Which one is the label for a product you can take if you have a headache?
   (d) Which labels indicate products you would keep out of the reach of children? How do you know?

2. The reader is asked to read three descriptions of a person or a building, and then to match the written descriptions to drawings or photographs of the persons/buildings described.

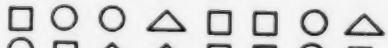
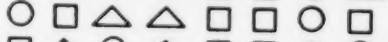
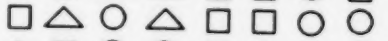
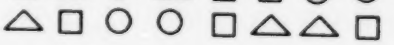
3. Instructions are given for assembling a Tinkertoy, with the actual pieces given to the student for assembly.

4. A set of instructions given and followed can be checked by a multiple-choice response as shown below.

   Follow the directions below to design a border. Use scratch paper to draw the border.

   (1) You will use squares, circles, and triangles to make your border.
   (2) Draw five squares, four circles, and three triangles in a straight line.
   (3) Erase every third figure and replace it with a circle.
   (4) Starting with the second figure in your line, erase it and every second figure from then on.
   (5) Put a triangle in the first two empty spaces.
   (6) Put a square in the next empty space.
   (7) Put a circle in the next three empty spaces.
   (8) Erase all but the first eight figures.

   Which border looks like yours?

   (a) 
   (b) 
   (c) 
   (d) 

(NASSP, 1976)

FIGURE 28
SAMPLE QUESTIONS FOR TESTING ABILITY TO FOLLOW DIRECTIONS
FROM ALAN PURVES, "COMPETENCE IN READING"[16]

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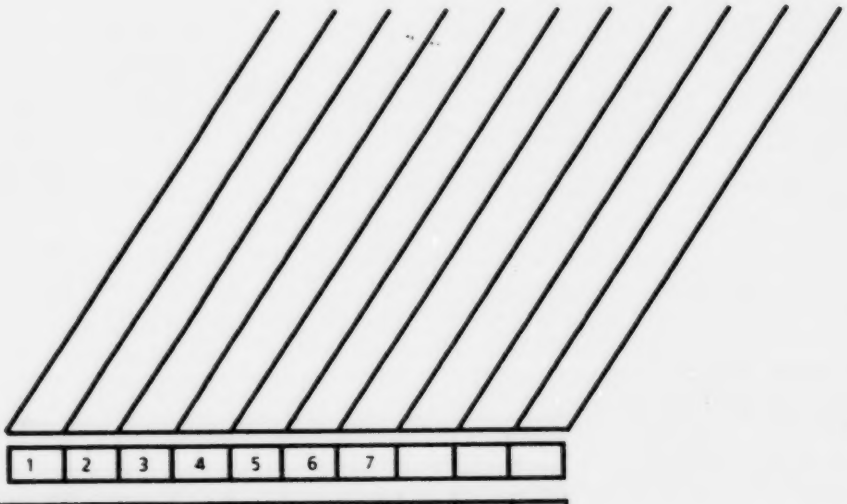
MARKING: ANOTHER APPROACH

Keeping marks throughout the term, as has been shown in Figure 25 (page 103), is one way of coming to a grade that is:

- related to student performance and improvement
- clearly understood by students
- defensible to school authorities and parents.

Another approach to the setting of a course mark is to maintain the "teacher as coach" role throughout the course, with a final mark assigned only at the end of the course.

A sample teacher's marks book used for such an approach to setting student marks is shown in Figure 29 below.



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
BROWN, Jane	✓	+	=	x	=	+	✓			
CHIU, Lee	x	=	–	✓	=	=	✓			
DION, Darcy	a	–	–	x	–	=	x			
DUNNIGAN, Don	x	–	=	✓	+	+	✓			
FORZA, Tony	✓	+	=	✓	+	+	✓			

Notes:

1. check mark indicates work was done adequately, "x" that it was not done adequately.

2. + indicates better than average work
   = indicates average work
   – indicates below average work

FIGURE 29
SAMPLE TEACHER'S MARKS BOOK PAGE:
HOLISTIC MARKING

On the next two pages, the holistic marking method is explained:

- in a handout offered to students at the beginning of the term (Figure 30, this page).
- in a marking scale which guides the teacher and interprets the mark to the student (Figure 31, page 112).

With such a guide and a record of informal marking such as that shown in Figure 29 (page 110), the teacher could communicate a tentative grade to a student who requested it or to an administrator who required it.

READING 10

EVALUATION SUMMARY

In this class, you will be evaluated on your success as a reader, your ability to discuss your own reading strengths and weaknesses, your successful reading strategies, and your attitude toward reading.

Because you are expected to take an active part in your own learning, you will be involved in the evaluation of your learning by:

- keeping a reading log
- completing self-assessments from time to time
- completing oral and written assignments
- talking with the teacher about your progress.

Your progress will be recorded throughout the course but not everything will be marked. As a result, the teacher will be able to coach rather than judge.

Your report card grades will relate to your growth as a reader as well as your successes with various readings. Reading tests will not be used. At any time you may request to know what grade would be assigned for progress to date. The grades assigned will be multiples of ten; that is, 90%, 80%, 70%, 60%, 50%, 40%. Descriptions of each grade are provided on a separate page. While someone might receive a grade of 100% or a grade lower than 40%, that would be very rare. In a few cases, a bonus of 5% may be added to one of these grades if a student exceeds the actual description of a grade without matching another description.

FIGURE 30
SAMPLE STUDENT HANDOUT
EXPLAINING EVALUATION OF READING 10
(M. IVESON)

READING 10

REPORT CARD GRADES TO BE ASSIGNED

MARK	DESCRIPTION OF STUDENT ACHIEVING THE MARK
90	A sophisticated, flexible reader capable of reading complex materials for varied purposes. Likes to read widely and in depth. Can read independently or get assistance when required. Has excelled in assigned work.
80	A mature, independent reader of varied materials. Likes to read widely and/or in depth in one area. Knows how to get assistance when meaning breaks down. Has excelled in assigned work.
70	An independent reader of many kinds of materials. Reads widely, or in depth in one area. Often knows how to get assistance when meaning breaks down. Has completed assigned work competently.
60	Can read material but sometimes needs assistance with strategies or background that many students can handle independently. Reads during Reading Time. Will ask for assistance, but may not know how to get help on his own. Has completed assigned work.
50	Made a significant move as a reader but continues to have difficulties. Deserves credits because of hard work and improvement.
40	Insufficient participation in classwork OR unable to handle readings.

FIGURE 31
SAMPLE EVALUATION GUIDE FOR HOLISTIC
GRADING OF READING 10
(M. IVESON)

CONCLUSION

WHAT ARE THE DESIRED OUTCOMES FOR STUDENTS IN READING 10?

In whatever way the teacher decides to assign marks in Reading 10, the success or failure of the student should be in relation to the following desired outcomes:

- heightened consciousness about the reading process, with reflective feedback to guide the student's growth
- increasing independence in reading: the reader takes more responsibility for choosing reading material and selecting appropriate strategies for reading it
- increasing awareness of purpose: readers are increasingly conscious of and explicit about their purposes for reading, and deal with the print material in the light of that purpose
- active involvement in the process of reading: the reader is more inclined to make the effort of assessing and applying prior knowledge, dealing with the unfamiliar by means of the familiar and doing away with distraction by "shutting out" if not by "shutting off".

Incoming Student		Outgoing Student
Reluctant Reader	———	Eager Reader
Under-confident Reader	———	Confident Reader
Short-burst Reader	———	Sustained Reader
Assisted Reader	———	Independent Reader
Cautious Reader	———	Risk-taking Reader

FIGURE 32
DEVELOPMENT OF READERS IN READING 10

Each student will enter Reading 10 somewhere along the paired continua shown in Figure 32. The teacher's task will be to take each reader from where he or she is as an incoming student to a point closer to reading fluency and power.

FOOTNOTES

PART FIVE

1. "Today's Cricket", from Tierney and Pearson, "Learning to Learn from Text," p. 13.

2. Excerpt from "Energy May Pave the Seafloor," Science Dimension 1984/5, Vol. 16, No. 5., 1984, p. 29.

3. Excerpt from Norman Mayersohn, "Unchained," CarCraft: Chevy Camaro, No. 4, p. 41.

4. Excerpt from Popular Computing, June 1985, p. 66.

5. Excerpt from Robert S. McNamara and Hans a. Bethe, "Reducing the Risk of Nuclear War," The Atlantic, July 1985, p. 47.

6. Excerpt from Country Guide, June 1985, p. 9.

7. P. D. Pearson, and R. J. Spiro, "Toward a Theory of Reading Comprehension Instruction," Topics in Language Disorders, 1981, 1 (1), P. 80.

8. Margaret Meek, Learning to Read, London: Bodley Head, 1981, p. 203.

9. John R. Bormuth, "The Cloze Procedure," in William D. Page, editor, Help for the Reading Teacher: New Directions in Research, pp. 60-90.

10. Alan Purves, "Competence in Reading," in Charles R. Cooper, editor, The Nature and Measurement of Competency in English, pp. 80-84. (This article is excellent on other methods of testing reading competency as well.)

11. Kenneth S. Goodman, "Miscues: Windows on the Reading Process," in Miscue Analysis, Urbana, Ill: ERIC (n.d.), pp. 3-14.

12. Carolyn Burke, "Oral Reading Analysis: A View of the Reading Process," in William D. Page, editor, Help for the Reading Teacher, pp. 23-33.

13. Tierney and Pearson "Learning to Learn," page 28.

14. Meek, Learning to Read, p. 209.

15. Alan Purves, "Competence in Reading", in Charles R. Cooper, ed., The Nature and Measurement of Competency in English, Urbana, Illinois: NCTE, 1981.

16. Adapted from Alan Purves, as above.

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APPENDIX I

LEARNING TO LEARN FROM TEXT: A FRAMEWORK FOR IMPROVING CLASSROOM PRACTICE

CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF READING

Reading Education Report No. 30

LEARNING TO LEARN FROM TEXT: A FRAMEWORK FOR IMPROVING CLASSROOM PRACTICE

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Learning to Learn from Text:

A Framework for Improving Classroom Practice

We believe that if teachers understand the nature of reading comprehension and learning from text, they will have the basis for evaluating and improving learning environments. In this regard, we find many advances in the psychology and pedagogy of reading comprehension that provide exciting possibilities for changing our approaches to helping students learn how to learn from text. For example, in terms of texts, we present evidence that suggests that less reliance should be placed upon traditional readability procedures involved in text selection and use, and that more credence should be given to teachers' impressionistic examinations of the extent to which a text fits with and might be used by selected students.

With respect to readers, teachers should recognize that a reader has a right to an interpretation and that reading comprehension is an interactive process involving more than a regurgitation of an author's explicit ideas. Readers should be encouraged to actively engage their background knowledge prior to, during, and after reading. They should be given opportunities to appreciate and evaluate the adequacy of their own perspective and other interpretations, to monitor their own progress through a text, and to discriminate new learnings from old knowledge.

Curriculum objectives might address: the importance, nature, and influence of a reader's knowledge; the need for a variable balance between reader-based and text-based processing; and the importance of selected monitoring strategies as well as transfer skills. Widely practiced notions that compartmentalize comprehension into simple question types on a continuum from literal to inferred to evaluative should be rethought. Teaching prescriptions for how to process a text that disregard the ever–changing interplay of text, purpose, and reader should be discarded. In their stead, we advocate the adoption of teaching procedures that encourage students to monitor their own processing strategies — how they allocate attention to text versus prior knowledge, how they can tell <u>what</u> and <u>that</u> they know, and how to apply fix up strategies when comprehension is difficult.

In this paper, we will amplify each of the preceding notions about reading comprehension and classroom practice. First, we present some basic notions about reading comprehension. Thereupon, we discuss the implications of these notions for teaching. One should note that the suggestions for teaching are not intended to be exhaustive, exemplary, or very specific; instead, they are intended to provide teachers with guidelines and cursory examples of ways in which they might proceed to develop their own teaching procedures. We hope that the suggestions will be sufficiently explicit to guide adaptation and development.

<u>Some Basic Notions about Reading Comprehension and Learning</u>

Consider for a moment what is involved in comprehending the following passage:

The Dust Bowl

> During World War I, prices had tempted farmers to grow wheat and cotton in the former grazing lands of the Plains region. Plows and harrows broke up the deep, tough sod that had previously prevented erosion and conserved moisture in this semi-arid region. When the years 1933-1935 proved unusually dry, there was danger that the region would become a desert. Terrible dust storms carried away topsoil in such quantities that even on the Atlantic seaboard the sun was obscured by a yellow haze. The water table of parts of the Plains region sank so low that wells ran dry. Between 1934 and 1939 an estimated 350,000 farmers emigrated from the "dust bowl." To take care of immediate distress, Congress provided funds

> so that dust bowl farmers could get new seed and livestock. On a long-term basis, the Department of Agriculture dealt with the dust bowl by helping farmers to plant 190 million trees in shelter beds, which cut wind velocity and retained moisture. Farmers were also encouraged to restore the Plains to what they had been in the days of the cattle kingdom and earlier — a grazing region. (Bragdon & McCutchen, 1978, p.623)

Readers familiar with farming and the Plains area of the United States will likely recognize how the drought, forces of supply and demand, and soil changes interacted to contribute to the deteriorating conditions of the Dust Bowl era. They might be able to visualize the changing conditions of the topography and sense the frustration and anguish experienced by the farmers. Readers unfamiliar with farming but possessing first-hand experience with economic hardship might focus on the personal hardships and family upheaval associated with periods of depression. Readers who have experienced both farm life and economic hardship might even be able to go beyond visualizing the drought conditions to experiencing "a dryness of mouth" and "lump in their throats" as their interpretation of text triggers recall of specific experiences from the past.

The point of the example is that comprehension never occurs in a vacuum; it cannot proceed independently of a reader's fund of related experiences of background knowledge (or schemata -- singular, schema - to use the recently rediscovered terminology of cognitive scientists). Comprehension is deemed to be at least somewhat idiosyncratic or at least conditioned by individual or group differences in background knowledge. And, in fact, there have been literally dozens of experimental demonstrations of the role that differences in background knowledge play in determining how students understand and retrieve information encountered in texts. Whereas this point may seem to belabor the obvious, current teaching and assessment procedures, with their emphasis on correct answers and preferred interpretations, seem to operate on the assumption that comprehension occurs independent of individual differences in background knowledge (a point to which we will return later in more detail).

How Does Comprehension Proceed?

If comprehension is not simply a matter of mapping the author's message into a reader's memory, how then does it occur? Let us begin with an example, taken from Collins, Brown, and Larkin (1977):

Window Text

> He plunked down $5.00 at the window. She tried to give him $2.50, but he refused to take it. So when they got inside, she bought him a large bag of popcorn.

With the initial statement, "He plunked down $5.00 at the window," the readers begin a search to build a model of the meaning of the text. One reader may invoke a racetrack scenario as a model; a second, a bank; a third, a movie theater. Each of these scenarios or models may be thought of as different schemata that different readers would invoke because of different levels of experience they have had with such scenarios in the past. Once invoked, each schema provides a framework for continuing the search to build a model for what the text means. For example, the racetrack schema creates expectations that bets, odds, horses, and jockeys will be mentioned soon, whereas the movie theater schema creates expectations for film title, certain types of food, like popcorn, and a stage with a screen.

Cognitive scientists like David Rumelhart, (1977; 1980) say that schemata have certain slots that must be filled and that comprehension consists of recognizing specific items in a text that fill those slots. For example, "He" in the first sentence is a candidate for the "bettor" slot in a racetrack schema, the "depositor" slot in a bank schema, or the "movie-goer" slot in the movie theater scenario. As depicted in Figure 1, they may have constructed an initial model of the text involving, for example, a bank window, with some bound slots (concepts enclosed by boxes) and some slots awaiting binding (concepts enclosed by circles).

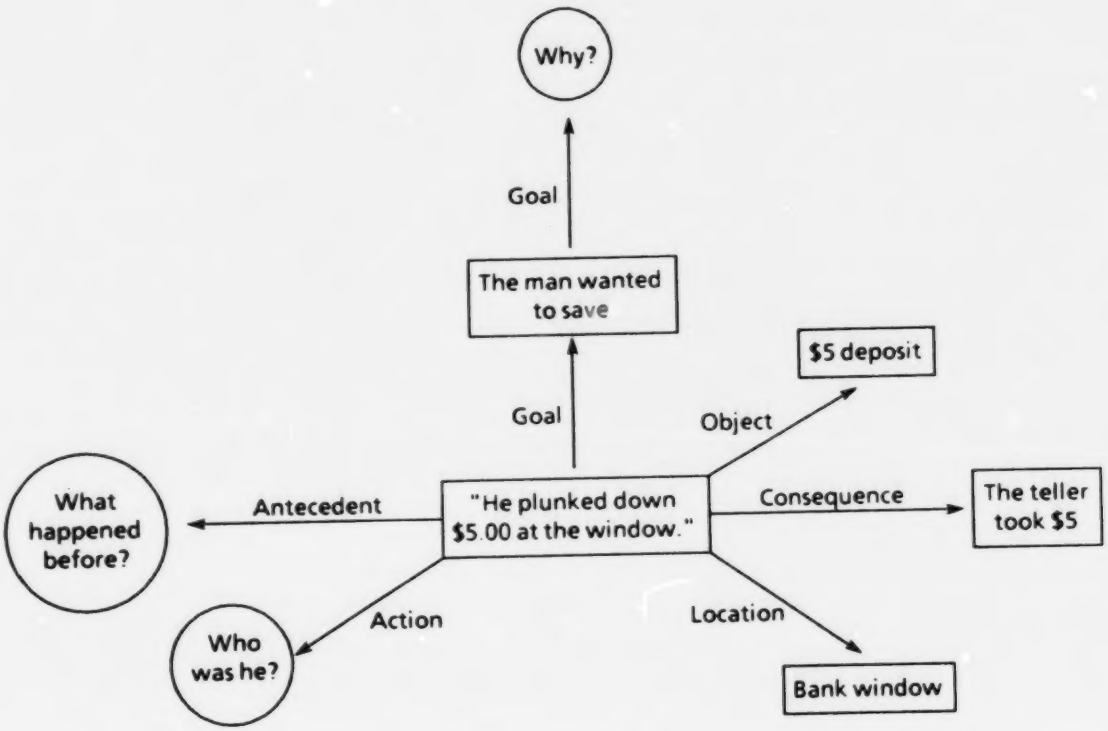

Figure 1. An initial stage in the construction of a model or scenario for the "Window Text."

As readers proceed, they progressively refine their models: "She" is usually defined as the recipient of the money; "$2.50" is usually identified as change. Then with the statement, "So when they got inside . . . popcorn," readers usually recognize a conflict. They realize their models no longer match the text and are implausible, disconnected, and incomplete. To restructure their model, they might question previous interpretations (for example, that the female was a bank clerk or a bet taker) and shift to a different schema--from a bank or racetrack to a theater. Eventually it is likely that a model will evolve for readers that involves the purchase of two tickets and an attempt by a date to share the expenses. At this point, readers will sense that they have accounted for the text and that their interpretations are plausible, connected, and complete--that is, their interpretations make sense, are coherent, and account for the text as well as their purposes for reading.

These same notions of reading comprehension can be applied to the passage "The Dust Bowl." With the initial statement, "During World War I, prices had tempted farmers to grow wheat and cotton in the former grazing lands of the Plains region," readers will likely activate their knowledge of farming and constrain these ideas in terms of the time period (World War I) and the type of farming to which the author alluded (wheat and cotton). As readers proceed, they are expected to relate these changes in farming--now focused on wheat and cotton--to plowing and the effects of plowing upon the conservation of moisture and potential for soil erosion. Across the next several sentences, "When the years. . . terrible dust storms . . . well run dry," readers need to activate other background knowledge, maintain their focus, and progressively refine a model for the text. Assuming a singular purpose and adequate background knowledge, it is likely that readers will eventually develop a model for the text that involves an appreciation of the events causing the Dust Bowl crisis and what Congress did to alleviate the problem. Readers will then either tacitly or consciously consider the adequacy of their interpretation--in particular, the extent to which: (a) their purposes for reading the text have been met and accounted for in relation to the text; and sometimes (b) the relevance or transfer value of their acquired understanding.

A key point of schema theory, then, is that reading comprehension is akin to the progressive refinement of a scenario or model that a reader develops for a text. That is, reading comprehension proceeds and inferencing occurs via the refinement of the reader's model. As Collins, Brown, and Larkin (1977) described the refinement of the reader's model

> The initial model is a partial model, constructed from schemas triggered by the beginning elements of the text. The models are progressively refined by trying to fill the unspecified slots in each model as it is constructed . . . and the search for relevant information is constrained more and more.

Within this framework, reader's schemata drive text processing toward the refinement of a model or scenario that "matches" the text against the reader's world and that is complete, interconnected, and plausible. That is, the reader's schemata will be involved in construction of a scenario to account for the elements and relationships within the text and the world as the reader sees it. If the reader's model seems tenable, then those schemata that comprise the model will be involved in the further text processing. If the reader's model seems untenable, then schemata will drive the reexamination, reconstruction, or restructuring of elements in the text to build a new model.

To summarize, the following statements can be made about reading comprehension: (a) A reader's background knowledge, including purposes, has an overriding influence upon the reader's development of meaning, and (b) reading comprehension involves the activation, focusing, maintaining, and refining of ideas toward developing interpretations (models) that are plausible, interconnected, and complete. In addition, there is a sense in which the reader's comprehension involves two other facets: the reader's knowing (either tacitly or consciously) that his or her

interpretations for a text are plausible, interconnected, and complete ("make sense"), and, ideally, the reader's evaluation of the transfer value of any acquired understandings.

Pedagogical Implications

Recent examinations of instructional practices suggest that there is not much in the way of worthwhile practices for developing or improving comprehension in schools (Durkin, 1978-79; Tierney, LaZansky, & Schallert, 1981). Instead, there is and has been a lot of comprehension testing and practice (students working by themselves on worksheets or answering questions) and a great deal of informal assessment (teachers quizzing students about text selections). In most lessons, students are given passages to read. During or after reading the passages, teachers ask questions (either orally or via a worksheet). Discussion of responses, if it takes place at all, focuses on finding a right answer. In terms of skill acquisition, a high premium has been placed upon separate objectives unrelated to any comprehensive model of reading comprehension or learning and clustered around curriculum objectives or arbitrarily defined skill categories (e.g., literal, inferential, and evaluative comprehension) that give little attention to the role of a reader's background knowledge and the importance of improving a reader's abilities to learn how to learn.[1] Reading comprehension is an area of the curriculum for which there has been little in the way of progress. Moreover, the changes that have occurred have not been tied to a careful analysis of the nature of reading comprehension and learning. We suggest that if teachers understand the nature of reading comprehension and learning, then they have the basis for determining what might facilitate and what might impede the development of comprehension and learning. We believe that a schema-theoretic perspective offers such a basis. Accordingly, we suggest the following guidelines for implementing curriculum improvements. Our guidelines are tied to three traditional and interrelated segments in typical lessons for reading selections: preparing for reading, guiding reader-text interaction, and facilitating postreading comprehension and learning.

Prerequisite for Reading: Does the Reader Have Schemata Relevant for Understanding Text?

Our first guideline addresses the empirically validated conclusion that a reader's prior knowledge has a pervasive influence upon understanding. Specifically, it is concerned with whether a match or mismatch exists between the purposes and prior knowledge of readers and the intentions and expectations of authors. That is, does the reader have the relevant schemata for a text?

Consider first the issue of match between an author's intentions and a reader's purposes. In our reviews of textbook materials, we have encountered numerous examples where text intended for one purpose is forced to fit other purposes. With little regard for the integrity of a selection, some publishers seem to presume that text well written for one purpose will be appropriate and well written for other purposes. For example, in a certain biology textbook, the publisher uses a text describing the changing color of leaves to try to explain the physical process of these changes. The questions that are asked following the selection assume that the readers have been given many more details than the text provides; further, they totally disregard the descriptive/aesthetic functions that the text appears to serve. In the elementary classroom, simple narratives usually intended to be read for enjoyment are often sabotaged by an excessive use of poorly fitting questions (e.g., detail questions dealing with trivial information) under the guise of skill objectives.

What can teachers do? Prior to using text for pedagogical purposes, they can and should consider the functions that texts are intended to serve against the purposes for which a teacher intends and students will likely initiate. For example, text might be examined by first isolating the essential understandings that students are expected to derive from a text and then examining the extent and nature of support (usually in the form of concrete examples and analogies that can bind new learnings to old) for these understandings provided within the text. If the reader's purposes are quite unlike those intended by the author, and if the text cannot be augmented even with teacher support (i.e., the teacher provides the analogies and examples), then it should not be read to elicit

those assumed understandings. Compare the obvious differences between the understandings that readers might be expected to glean from Stephen Crane's The Red Badge of Courage (1966), which uses the U.S. Civil War as background, and from a chapter on the Civil War in a history textbook. In the former, it is the themes of death, fear, and cowardice evoked by the experiences of a young man participating in war that are likely to capture the reader. In the latter, it is the facts and concepts that describe and define the Civil War that will be paramount. For Crane's treatment, it might be reasonable to expect a reader to glean an appreciation of the mood of the experience of war; for the textbook chapter, it might be reasonable to expect the reader to develop an appreciation of the causes, progress, and consequences of the Civil War. Even with a great deal of teacher support (including additional information, clarification, and other material), neither text could serve the purposes for which the other text seems intended.

Consider second the issues of mismatch between an author's expectations regarding audience and a reader's prior background of experience. There are many times when a text written for an audience with certain background knowledge is given to an audience with different or limited knowledge of this same topic. For example, note the difficulties an American reader will incur when trying to understand the following passage, even if it were revised to a lower readability level.

Today's Cricket

> The batsmen were merciless against the bowlers. The bowlers placed their men in slips and covers. But to no avail. The batsmen hit one four after another along with an occasional six. Not once did a ball look like it would hit their stumps or be caught.

Revised Version

> The men were at bat against the bowlers. They did not show any pity. The bowlers placed their men in slips. They placed their men in covers. It did not help. The batsmen hit a lot of fours. They hit some sixes. No ball hit the stumps. No ball was caught.

Or consider the following segment taken from a biology text (Gallant, 1975):

The Garbage Collectors of the Sea

> The garbage collectors of the sea are the decomposers. Day and night, ocean plants and animals that die, and the body wastes of living animals, slowly drift down to the sea floor. There is a steady rain of such material that builds up on the sea bottom. This is especially true on the continental shelves, where life is rich. It is less true in the desert regions of the deep ocean.
> As on the land, different kinds of bacteria also live in the sea. They attack the remains of dead plant and animal tissue and break it down into nutrients. These nutrients are then taken up by plant and animal plankton alike. Among such nutrients are nitrate, phosphate, manganese, silica, and calcium. . . .

It does not take too much effort to identify the readers for whom these texts, even if adapted for readability, might be inappropriate or incomprehensible. The first passage is written for an audience knowledgeable about cricket; the second passage is intended for an American high school student with an understanding of decomposition, continental shelves, body wastes, and bacteria. We would predict that readers without these understandings will have a great deal of difficulty reading the text and will likely develop incomplete or inappropriate interpretations for the text.

How can teachers assess whether a mismatch is likely to occur? It is our argument that traditional readability procedures (the use of formulas based upon word difficulty, word length, and sentence length, the use of the cloze procedure requiring the replacement of deleted words) will not suffice. Instead teachers should judge the adequacy of text for themselves. They should pursue an impressionistic evaluation of the demands of the text together with an assessment of readers' prior knowledge. For purposes of illustration, an analysis of the "Garbage Collectors of the Sea" could involve an examination of the support given the concept of decomposition and an informal assessment of what students know. For example, day and night and steady rain provide ample support for the notion that decomposition is a never-ending process; considered as vague might be the locational reference to continental shelf – a term likely to be unfamiliar to most readers – and those aspects of the text specifying what decomposers are. To verify the possibility of a mismatch, teachers might informally assess the students' background knowledge by discussing with students what they know about these key concepts prior to reading.

If mismatches are inevitable, teachers have the following choices: dismiss the passage as inadequate, or provide the students with the background experiences appropriate to the text. In terms of the latter, teachers might provide adjuncts or supplemental experiences prior to having students read the text. For example, teachers might support the use of textbooks with other reading material, media, activities, and experiences to supplement what students already know. As Rumelhart and Ortony (1977) have emphasized, "In all cases existing knowledge is utilized and required for the acquisition of new knowledge" or as Pearson and Spiro (1981) suggest: "Instead of asking the question 'what does the student not know that I have to help him or her learn?', educators should be asking 'what is it that the student does know that I can use as an anchor point – a bridge – to help develop the concepts that he or she needs?'". This implies that in those situations for which the reader lacks the background knowledge, teachers need to build bridges from what they already know or provide experiences or analogies (for example, a discussion of baseball as a means of understanding cricket) by which the readers can build such bridges for themselves.

Apart from specific action, teachers might offer a general program of schema development. Such a program might include field trips as well as films in conjunction with topics being read or discussed. It might involve students in activities that encourage their pursuit of or immersion in a topic through a variety of resources, for example, library materials and discussions with knowledgeable persons.

Guiding Reader-Text Interactions: Do Readers Engage Their Schemata?

Our second guideline moves our discussion of pedagogy from prerequisites for dealing with text to the issue of student engagement with text. In particular, our second guideline assumes that readers already have adequate prior knowledge for dealing with text and asks whether they engage it. Many theorists and practitioners advocate strategies that are derived either directly or indirectly from these notions. For example, most basal reading lessons and several reading educators advise teachers to begin with either selected questions or a discussion of a story topic designed to activate background knowledge prior to reading. During reading, they often insert questions as a means of guiding or shaping a reader's understanding. Stauffer's (1969) Directed Reading-Thinking Activity (DR-TA) is one such procedure where setting purposes together with guided reading are integral. As Stauffer has stated:

> . . . either the reader declares his own purposes or if he adopts the purposes of others, he makes certain how and why he is doing so. He also speculates about the nature and complexity of the answers he is seeking by using to the fullest his experience and knowledge relevant to the circumstances. Then he reads to test his purposes and his assumptions. As a result, he may: one, find the answer he is seeking literally and completely stated; two, find only partial answers or implied answers and face the need to either restate his purposes in light of the new information gained or to suspend judgment until more reading has been done; three, need to declare completely new purposes.
>
> (Stauffer, 1969, p. 40)

There are numerous other strategies and practices ranging from advance organizers to study guides to prefatory statements to questioning strategies directed at these same ends.

In general terms, schema engagement relates to: (a) the reader's initial contact with a text, (b) the reader's ability to relate his or her own background of experience to the information represented within the text, and (c) the reader's ability to focus and refine his or her understanding of the text material. In particular, the notion of schema engagement addresses the issues represented by the following questions:

> Was the reader's schema engaged prior to reading, during reading, and after reading?
>
> To what extent did learning occur? Was the reader's relevant background of experience focused and structured during reading?

For teachers, schema engagement can be a serious problem among some of their students. A teacher may assume correctly that students have appropriate schemata for reading a text, only to discover in a postreading discussion that they did not engage those schemata while reading. Sometimes this problem manifests itself as a general lack of interest for reading a text or as an unwillingness to consider a topic or purposes prior to reading. In this regard, sometimes a schema engagement problem may be passage-specific – that is, it may arise for certain texts and not others. Sometimes schema engagement problems occur because readers fail to maintain schemata while reading. This may occur for a number of different reasons. First, readers may be predisposed to plod laboriously through any and every text they read. For example, readers may be devoting all their attention and capacity to decoding, leaving no room for comprehension. Second, poorly written text may make schema maintenance difficult if not impossible: for example, sudden shifts in topic, inadequate transitions, or poorly developed ideas may make the reader's task unduly difficult. Third, readers may be inattentive or distracted by too many or ill-considered adjuncts; that is, sometimes study questions and activities interrupt reading and cause a disruption of schema engagement. What can teachers do? First and foremost, teachers should remain alert to whether students are engaging their schemata prior to, during, and after reading. Typically, a few well-placed and open-ended questions will elicit a response from students that will suffice for such an assessment. If schema engagement problems are apparent, then teachers can adopt and adapt teaching procedures to meet the specific needs of readers. Since it is unlikely that a single procedure will be appropriate for all students in all situations and it is possible that teacher adjuncts may "do more harm than good," the following broad suggestions are presented only for purposes of exemplification.

Source of Problem	Some Possible Solutions
General reader inertia lack of interest	Use highly motivational material and functional reading material that necessitates a student response (e.g., following directions to an experiment, or on a treasure map).
Text-based problems (discontinuity, poorly developed ideas, etc.)	Prepare adjuncts to circumvent the difficulties (e.g., include statements that clarify the ideas represented within the text or encourage students to skip over them if they are irrelevant. Encourage students to be the critics of poorly written text (e.g., have students evaluate poorly developed text and discuss how an author or reader might address these problems).
Overdependency upon teacher support	Avoid the use of any adjuncts that will displace the text. Use adjuncts sparingly and in conjunction with encouraging the reader to be self-initiating. Have students replace teacher adjuncts with their own probes. Discuss the purpose and role of any adjuncts.

Guiding Reader-Text Interactions: Does the Reader Exhibit Flexible Processing Across Different Texts Read for Different Purposes?

Our third guideline is tied directly to our second guideline, but unlike our second it addresses the issue of monitoring reader-text interactions. As suggested earlier, when readers interact with text, they will and should acquire some information that was represented in the text and integrate it with information from their background knowledge. Certainly, there are situations for which it may be reasonable to expect a reader's understanding to remain close to the text; for example, when following a set of directions; alternatively, there are other situations for which it may be appropriate to expect a more reader based interpretation. With this in mind, consider those situations when a reader's interactive processing reflects a tendency to be either "too text-based" or "too reader-based." For example, consider the situation where a reader's interpretation is too reader-based, producing understandings that are "too loose" for the text and its intended purpose. What might be the ramifications if a science student read the following text too loosely?

> The experiment that you are about to do deals with a property of light. For this experiment you'll need a penny, a cup, transparent tape, and a pitcher of water.
> To perform the experiment, tape the penny to the bottom of the cup. Move your head to a point just beyond where you can see the penny.

Hold your head still, then slowly pour water into the cup.
Be sure not to move your head.
Stop pouring if the penny comes into view.

Here, to explain or perform the experiment adequately, the science student cannot take liberties lest he or she err in the performance of the experiment. Unfortunately, readers with tendencies toward being too reader-based do not know that or what they do not know. They presume they know the material better than they actually do or need to. Particularly when the text deals with a familiar topic, readers assume that they know what is written. As a result, they often fail to recognize what might be subtle but important text signals. They fail to monitor their interactions with a text. In the context of many classrooms, these students escape identification, for they might be successful readers in most situations and, furthermore, can "bluff their way through" most teachers' questions.

What can a teacher do to help such students? First and foremost, teachers should alert students to the need to monitor their reading of texts differently for different texts. In text situations where a more text-based understanding is required, teachers might: alert the students to the need to read the material carefully; provide adjuncts (inserted questions or activities) that encourage students to monitor their developing interpretation; provide students with strategies such as outlining and notetaking for carefully reading the text; encourage students to consciously consider their purposes, their level of understanding, and ways to monitor that understanding; and have the students read the material in conjunction with carrying out some relevant activity (for example, an experiment in which successful performance is contingent upon a careful reading). Such students can be encouraged to consider the text more carefully by giving them questions that have two or three correct distractor choices, some of which come from the text and some of which do not. Students then can be asked to discriminate between correct text-based and correct knowledge-based answers.

Alternatively, consider the situation where a reader's understanding is too "text-based" for the text and purposes for reading. As Spiro (1977) has suggested, certain conditions of schooling may predispose a reader to ascribe to text an autonomy that sponsors the separation of textual information from related prior knowledge. For example, a reader may minimize the interaction of his or her background of experience with a text to cope with the demands of answering a series of questions or the obvious demands of certain texts. Some may perceive the task of reading to be detached from self and tied to a text. In particular, they may perceive the task of reading to be detached from their own experiences. For example, in oral reading situations, in completing cloze activities (especially cloze activities demanding an exact-word replacement), and in response to a teacher's demand for a "more literal" interpretation, we would expect that students may misconstrue what reading comprehension is. They may decide, erroneously, that reading means a word-perfect rendition of a text.

What can teachers do in these situations? First, they should encourage readers to relate their background of experience to what they read and alert them to the importance of their own ideas, perspective, and purpose in any communication. Minimally, the reader should be asked to discuss his or her knowledge, including a perspective about a topic in conjunction with a discussion of the author's perspective and what the author assumed the reader knew and might learn. Otherwise, the facilitation might be accomplished either through adjunct-questions, activities, or appropriate variations. For example, sets of questions might be developed that encourage the reader to engage his or her own background of experience prior to, during, and after reading. Questions might encourage the reader to discuss his or her perceptions of what might happen and, at points during reading, what has occurred and any implications thereof.

To illustrate more specifically how this might proceed, here is a technique we have found useful. Begin by asking students what they think of when they hear the word X (where X is the topic that they are going to read about later). As they offer their associations, jot them down into categories (as yet unlabelled). For example, for tree the implicit categories might include parts of trees, kinds of trees, processes, products, and other tree-associated topics. Then go back and help the students to label the categories. Then ask them to read the chapter to learn more about X. After that, return to the set of categories related to X and ask students to add new terms that they have acquired from reading. What one ends up with is a vivid demonstration of the student's pre-existing schema, new learnings from the text, and the relationship between new and old information. The technique also maximizes the likelihood of schema engagement during reading.

Postreading Comprehension and Learning: Is the Reader's Understanding Adequate? Are New Learnings Transferable?

Our fourth guideline moves us from guidance and monitoring of text interactions to addressing the adequacy of readers' understandings. Central to our discussion are two notions: first, the realization that what is considered accuracy of understanding should be regarded as relative; second, the issue of transfer of new learnings.

Consider the notion that accuracy of a reader's understanding should be regarded as relative. The key point here is that what is considered an appropriate understanding is likely to vary from reader to reader and from context to context. That is, accuracy of understanding is relative and should be considered a function of individual reader and individual text characteristics, as well as a function of purposes for reading. In constructing an interpretation, a reader selects, inserts, substitutes, deletes, and connects ideas in conjunction with what he or she perceives as "making sense." And what "makes sense" depends upon the text as well as the reader's purposes and background knowledge. There are two postulates taken from Tierney and Spiro (1979) that are relevant to this notion:

1. A reader's selections, insertions, substitutions, omission, and binding of ideas are not necessarily a sign of reader error.

2. It should not be assumed that each text has a single interpretation.

What implications does this notion hold for teachers? It would seem that teachers need to respect both authorship and readership. Indeed, accuracy of understanding is misleading unless defined in terms of the author's intentions and the reader's purposes. This means that teachers must recognize the reader's right to interpret a text at the same time that they instill in students a responsibility to address the author's intentions in writing the text. Integral to curriculum objectives that capitalize upon this perspective is the inclusion of goals similar to the following: The student is able to make judgments about his or her own understanding, the author's intentions, task demands, and strategy utilization. This will include objectives directed at having the students recognize alternative perspectives, the engagement of their own background knowledge, the plausibility of alternative interpretations, the viability of strategies for learning from various texts for alternative purposes, the nature of task demands (including author's intention and plan of organization), and nature and applications of new learnings. Integral to classroom practices, we suggest that teachers should assess the quality of a reader's interpretation in accordance with the following:

To what extent was the reader's understanding adequate for the text and purposes for reading?

When a reader's understanding diverges from some consensual author's intention, can the reader's interpretation be justified?

Current practices, with their emphases upon correct answers and a single appropriate interpretation, violate these principles. In their stead, we suggest that teachers need to move away from assessment procedures that sponsor a "single-correct-answer mentality" and generate devices that are open-ended and that allow for divergent responses. For example, after reading a selection, teachers might allow students to relate their own interpretations prior to prodding them with an array of questions. To move students away from "the right answer" orientation, students might be asked to rate or rank the plausibility of each response to a multiple choice question. In follow-up discussions different students can compare the rationales behind their various rankings or ratings. The acid test for student response quality should be "can it be justified?" rather than "is it right?" This criterion places the emphasis precisely where it should be placed: on the quality of students' reasoning abilities. Such a stance will also increase the likelihood that important rather than trivial aspects of text will receive emphasis.

Consider next the notion of transfer. The notion of transfer relates to whether a reader can apply what he or she has read or learned to other situations. At issue in any teaching reading comprehension situation should be two key considerations.

> Is the reader able to recognize new learnings and potential application?
>
> Is the reader able to apply skills acquired during instruction to other text situations without the support of such instruction?

These two questions can be translated into simple tests of comprehension: (a) Can readers use the new knowledge they have acquired? and (b) Can readers use the new strategies they have acquired when they encounter new texts on their own?

The issue of applying or using new knowledge places reading in a real-world context. The criterion assumes that students understand, remember, and evaluate new information more readily when they know its relevance to other experiences. That is, students should be asked to consider "the point" of what they have read, whether that point be for enjoyment, information gain, or to solve problems.

The second issue – applying learned strategies – gets at the heart of instruction. Presumably we teach so that students will become independent learners, no longer needing our intervention and support. Independence is the essence of transfer. Unfortunately, very few studies have addressed the transfer of strategy issue. From those few studies that have been reported, we are impressed that students rarely develop an ability to transfer or apply knowledge, skills, or strategies spontaneously – that is, when they are left to their own resources. Instead, they need to be guided toward transfer. This includes being alerted to when and how to use what strategies. By implication, if teachers are to help students develop independent reading and learning skills, they should not assume that it will just happen. Situations and activities need to be implemented wherein students can try, discuss, and evaluate their strategy, skill, and knowledge utilization across a variety of reading situations. In this regard, teachers need to move beyond merely mentioning reading comprehension skills and begin helping students learn how to learn. There appear to be some general guidelines emerging from recent research on teaching reading comprehension that are relevant to this goal. One rather consistent finding is that students rarely acquire transferable abilities without being provided ample opportunities to develop and practice those abilities in a variety of relevant contexts. A key word here is relevant. Relevance pertains to the notion that students need to understand the purpose and function of reading strategies, comprehension, or learning, as well as be given appropriate situations within which to explore their nature. If a reader is being asked to apply a strategy determining the main idea, the reader should do so within a variety of situations for which it is reasonable to find the main idea. Furthermore, readers appear to

profit most from such learning experiences when they are given an explicit understanding of when, why, how, and what to do.

Concluding Remarks

It has been the purpose of this paper to draw upon recent developments in the study of reading comprehension as a means of examining issues or relevance to improving reading comprehension and learning from text. We have suggested that if teachers are to develop a reader's understanding, they should address the adequacy of their pedagogy against some basic notions about reading and learning. The notions that we have suggested are driven by a schema-theoretic perspective – a view that prompted the following questions as guidelines to instructional decision making.

- Does the reader have the relevant schemata for a text?
- Was the reader's schema activated (purpose, background knowledge, attention, focus, interest) prior to, during, and after reading? Was the reader's relevant background of experience activated during reading?
- Across reading materials for different purposes, did the reader exhibit flexible processes in terms of activating, focusing, maintaining, and refining an interpretation? Was the reader aware of the strategies one could use to cope with different texts and purposes for reading?
- To what extent was the reader's understanding adequate for the text and purposes for reading? When a reader's understanding diverges from some consensual author's intention, did the reader justify his or her idiosyncratic interpretation? Did the reader recognize his or her perspective and the perspective of others?
- Was the reader aware of his or her level of understanding of a text read for different purposes?
- Did the reader recognize new learnings and their potential applications?

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Footnote

[1] Implicit within our discussion of the nature of comprehension has been the suggestion that inference and interpretation are as essential to acquiring an understanding as they may be to extending understanding after reading. This idea suggests that the widely espoused notion of a continuum from literal to inferred to evaluative has questionable validity. Not only does it lack validity as a statement about reading comprehension, it may have questionable utility as a curriculum guideline. There are many ways to acquire an understanding and at times different permissible understandings, regardless of whether these understandings be literal, inferential, or evaluative. Our point is that unless a great deal of thought goes into operationalizing curriculum procedures based upon these categories, teachers may find that they are forcing a student to deal with the literal when it would be more appropriate to address the inferred or evaluative. We believe that every act of reading necessitates inferential and interpretive understandings. In fact, students may need to deal with the inferential and evaluative prior to addressing the "literal."